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ABSTRACT

This book provides teacher educators, administrators, practicing teachers who work with preservice teachers, policymakers, and researchers with information on the conceptual, research, and application areas of service-learning in preservice teacher education. The collection of papers offers teacher educators' thoughts about ways to enhance the usefulness of service-learning in preservice teacher preparation. The book is grouped into five main parts. Part 1 deals with theories, standards, and principles of practice. Part 2 includes several research studies and reviews as well as a suggested framework for further research and development. Part 3 explicates 11 different approaches to implementing service-learning in teacher education in the form of case studies. Part 4 deals with administrative and organizational arrangements as well as issues surrounding the teaching of service-learning, diversity, and assessment. Part 5 presents thoughts for the future from one of service-learning's long-standing adherents and researchers. It also includes an annotated bibliography. Three appendixes include: standards of quality for school-based and community-based service-learning; tools for teaching the pedagogy of service-learning; and contributing authors. (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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ED 451 167

SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

ENHANCING THE GROWTH OF
NEW TEACHERS,
THEIR STUDENTS,
AND COMMUNITIES

EDITORS

JUDITH B. ANDERSON

KVIN J. SWICK

JOOST YET

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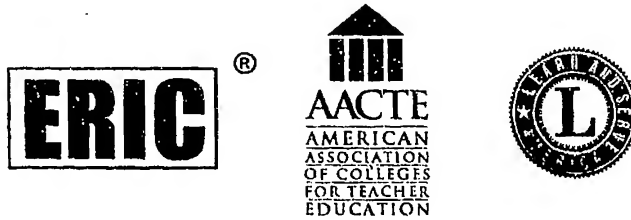
**ENHANCING THE GROWTH OF
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JEFFREY B. ANDERSON

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JOOST YFF



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CONTENTS

Foreword

David G. Imig VII

Introduction

Jeffrey B. Anderson, Kevin J. Swick, and Joost Yff IX

PART 1: THEORIES, STANDARDS, AND PRINCIPLES THAT PROMOTE GOOD PRACTICE

Introduction to Part 1

Jeffrey B. Anderson I

CHAPTER 1. Rationales for Integrating Service-Learning in Teacher Education

Susan Verducci and Denise Pope 2

CHAPTER 2. Psychological Bases of Effective Service-Learning

Joseph A. Erickson and Toni Santmire 19

CHAPTER 3. Institutionalizing Service-Learning in Teacher Education: The Perspective From Feminist Phase Theory

Kelly Ward and Debra Nitschke-Shaw 39

CHAPTER 4. Service-Learning and Standards-Based Teacher Education

Jane P. Callahan, Mary E. Diez, and Lynne B. Ryan 53

CHAPTER 5. Principles of Good Practice for Service-Learning in Preservice Teacher Education

Jeffrey B. Anderson and Don Hill 69

PART 2: RESEARCH ON SERVICE-LEARNING IN PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Introduction to Part 2

Kevin J. Swick 85

CHAPTER 6. A Review of Research on Service-Learning in Preservice Teacher Education

Sue Root and Andrew Furco 86

CHAPTER 7. Capturing the Power of Service-Learning in Teacher Education Through Portraiture <i>Lissa Soep and Don Hill</i>	102
CHAPTER 8. Project S.A.L.U.T.E.: Service and Learning in Urban Teacher Education <i>Deborah C. Allen-Campbell and Kristin Brannon</i>	111
CHAPTER 9. Service-Learning for Teacher Preparation Programs in Rural Areas <i>Teresa M. Davis, Anne Bianchi, and Gerald H. Maring.</i>	116
CHAPTER 10. Initial Service-Learning Experience Through the Lenses of Preservice Teachers <i>Kim Flottemesch, Tuula Heide, Melvin Pedras, and Grace Goc Karp</i>	126
CHAPTER 11. Early Childhood Teacher Education Students Strengthen Their Caring and Competence Through Service-Learning <i>Nancy K. Freeman and Kevin J. Swick.</i>	134
CHAPTER 12. A Framework for Conceptualizing and Doing Research on Service-Learning in Preservice Teacher Education <i>Sue Root and Kevin J. Swick.</i>	141

PART 3: APPROACHES TO INTEGRATING SERVICE-LEARNING IN PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Introduction to Part 3 <i>Kevin J. Swick.</i>	153
CHAPTER 13. The Enhancement of Service-Learning and Educational Foundations at the University of Idaho <i>Grace Goc Karp, Melvin J. Pedras, Tuula Heide, and Kim Flottemesch</i>	154
CHAPTER 14. Integrating Service-Learning Into "Education in a Democratic Society" at Ball State University <i>Jill Miels</i>	158
CHAPTER 15. Integrating Service-Learning and Social Studies Pedagogy at Wisconsin Lutheran College <i>Ray Dusseau and John Freese.</i>	163
CHAPTER 16. Experiencing Active Citizenship: Service-Learning in an Elementary Social Studies Methods Course at the University of Iowa <i>Rahima C. Wade.</i>	167

CHAPTER 17. Service-Learning in a Science Methods Course at the University of Akron <i>Francis Broadway and Beth Clark-Thomas</i>	172
CHAPTER 18. Literacy and Service-Learning: From Abstraction to Application at the University of Montana <i>Marian J. McKenna</i>	177
CHAPTER 19. Students' Understanding of Young Children's Growth and Development as Enhanced by Service-Learning at the University of South Carolina <i>Nancy K. Freeman</i>	182
CHAPTER 20. Using Service-Learning to Enhance the Preparation of Preservice Special Education Teachers at Rivier College <i>Howard S. Muscott</i>	188
CHAPTER 21. Service-Learning in Middle-Level Teacher Education at California State University-San Marcos <i>Laurie Stowell and Janet E. McDaniel</i>	193
CHAPTER 22. The Integration of Service-Learning Into Teacher Education Major/Public and Community Service Minor at Providence College <i>Jane Callahan</i>	199
CHAPTER 23. A Graduate Course in Service-Learning at Clemson University <i>Carol G. Weatherford, Marty Duckenfield, Janet Wright, Emma Owens, and David E. Weatherford, Jr.</i>	204
 PART 4: ADMINISTRATIVE, ORGANIZATIONAL, AND PEDAGOGICAL ISSUES	
Introduction to Part 4 <i>Jeffrey B. Anderson</i>	211
CHAPTER 24. A Dean's Perspective on Service-Learning in Teacher Education <i>Steve Lilly</i>	212
CHAPTER 25. The Service-Learning Scholars Roundtable: A Model for Engaging Faculty in Service-Learning Theory and Practice <i>Susan R. Jones</i>	220
CHAPTER 26. Developing Rich Collaborations Between Schools, Universities, and Community Partners <i>Angela M. Harwood and Robert Lawson</i>	234

CHAPTER 27. Multicultural Service-Learning in Teacher Education <i>Rahima C. Wade, Marilynne Boyle-Baise, and Carolyn O'Grady</i>	248
CHAPTER 28. Teaching the Pedagogy of Service-Learning <i>Jane P. Callahan, Terri Davis, and Don Hill</i>	260
CHAPTER 29. Continuous Improvement: Assessing Students' Learning Through Service <i>Rich Cairn, Mark Langseth, and Julie Plaut</i>	276

PART 5: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY AND AFTERWORD

Service-Learning and Teacher Education: An Annotated Bibliography <i>Robert Shumer and Ann Treacy</i>	297
Birth of a Dream: A California Perspective on the Integration of Service- Learning in American Teacher Education, 2000-2010 <i>Don Hill</i>	315

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A: Standards of Quality for School-Based and Community-Based Service-Learning.	323
APPENDIX B: Tools for Teaching the Pedagogy of Service-Learning.	325
APPENDIX C: Contributing Authors.	335



FOREWORD

The notion that service-learning can help in both the preparation of teachers and the schooling of children is being recognized by an increasing number of educators worldwide. Many questions call for answers as educators investigate this opportunity further. To what degree does service-learning enhance measurable learning outcomes among children? Do teachers demonstrate greater subject knowledge and/or self-confidence when their teacher education curriculum includes service-learning experiences? Do service-learning settings help to illuminate indicators or evidence of quality as specified in student and teacher standards? Is there a relationship between service-learning and students' citizenship skills, interpersonal skills, world view, and personal self-worth?

In 1997, faculty in several AACTE member institutions joined with AACTE staff to develop and implement a 3-year project funded by the Corporation for National Service (CNS), AACTE, and six member institutions selected on a competitive basis to do technical assistance and research in service-learning in teacher education.

Although ended, the Service-Learning and Teacher Education (SLATE) project has generated a follow-on project, also supported by CNS and AACTE. AACTE is working again with several member institutions, and in collaboration with several other organizations, to further develop service-learning as a method for teacher education and education in the schools. Of particular interest in this new project are the further development of the knowledge base through rigorous research methodology and the encouragement of conversations across disciplines and in several policy issue areas to examine the validity of service-learning in a variety of curricular settings. Technical assistance to schools of education interested in considering service-learning as a pedagogy is an important feature of this project as well.

This book documents the state of the field at the end of the SLATE project and provides a guide to work yet to be done. It is the result of the efforts of many people who came together in an informal network around the improvement of education through service-learning. Editors Jeffrey B. Anderson, Kevin J. Swick, and Joost Yff and all the authors volunteered their time and expertise to produce it. Collaboration with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education in its production assures wide availability of the work. Its chapters document the range of work and viewpoints that support current efforts to improve education through service-learning.

David G. Imig

*President and CEO
American Association of
Colleges for Teacher Education*

INTRODUCTION

■ JEFFREY B. ANDERSON, KEVIN J. SWICK, AND JOOST YFF

Schools of education and the schools with which they work face two daunting yet crucial tasks. New teachers must be prepared to function effectively in the schools as they exist today, and they must be educated to take a leadership role in improving and restructuring those schools. Service-learning has considerable potential as a method to achieve both these goals.

During the past decade, interest in service-learning has grown among U.S. schools and colleges. A recent U.S. Department of Education study revealed that 32% of all public schools, including more than one-half of the high schools, offer service-learning in their curricula (Skinner & Chapman, 1999). Service-learning is also proliferating in preservice teacher education programs throughout the country. A survey conducted by the National Service-Learning in Teacher Education Partnership (1998) found that more than 225 of the approximately 1,200 teacher education programs in the nation offer service-learning experiences, and another 200 are interested in developing such opportunities for preservice teachers.

OUR PURPOSE IN PRODUCING THIS BOOK

This book focuses on service-learning in preservice teacher education. It builds on the base established in *Learning With the Community: Concepts and Models for Service-Learning in Teacher Education* published by the American Association for Higher Education (Erickson & Anderson, 1997). The current volume documents the continuing integration of service-learning in the mainstream of preservice teacher education. This book is an eclectic resource that teacher education faculty and administrators can use as they think seriously about moving to provide their preservice teachers with in-depth service-learning experiences. While not a text, the book does include sections that could be tapped as a classroom resource.

The book is a collection of teacher educators' thinking about ways to enhance the usefulness of service-learning in preservice teacher preparation. In selecting authors and topics for inclusion in this book, we focused primarily on individuals who have maintained a continuing involvement with the service-learning initiatives of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). These initiatives include the Service-Learning and Teacher Education (SLATE) project, the AACTE Service-Learning Special Study Group, and most recently, the AACTE National Service-Learning in Teacher Education Partnership (NSLTEP). As a result of this focus, the book includes the contributions of more than 50 teacher educators who have extensive experience with service-learning, and it represents the breadth of AACTE's involvement in this area of education reform.

We decided to include a balance of theory, research, and personal experiences in the book to assist both service-learning novices and experts in enhancing the quality of service-learning practice. It is our hope that this book will help move the field of service-learning in teacher education nearer to the level of scholarship and practice that exists in service-learning in higher education generally. With the recent publication of groundbreaking books such as *Where's the Learning in Service-Learning?* (Eyler & Giles, 1999), *Successful Service-Learning Programs: New Models of Excellence in Higher Education* (Zlotkowski, 1998), and *Service-Learning in Higher Education* (Jacoby & Associates, 1996), the quality of scholarship and practice of service-learning in higher education generally has taken a dramatic upswing. There is a critical need for this process to occur in teacher education as well.

As with any field in its early stages, service-learning in preservice teacher education needs to develop a knowledge base of shared understandings regarding definitions, rationales, principles of good practice, and theoretical underpinnings. Astute readers will note a variety of instances in which authors in this book are not in full agreement or clearly contradict each other, reflecting the state of the field today. We did not attempt, as editors, to force movement to reach a consensus that does not yet exist (but see Chapter 5 by Anderson and Hill, "Principles of Good Practice for Service-Learning in Preservice Teacher Education," which is a deliberate effort to encourage consensus).

WHO SHOULD READ THIS BOOK?

The intended audience for this book includes teacher education faculty and administrators, P-12 educators who work with preservice teachers, and policy makers and researchers interested in increasing the quality and quantity of service-learning experiences offered in teacher preparation programs in this country and around the world. We believe that this book will help these individuals to understand that service-learning is a serious subject with great potential for improving teacher preparation and that service-learning is the subject of nationwide research and development of great variety and integrity.

The following section provides a brief overview of some of the basics of service-learning and a summary of the state of service-learning in preservice teacher education.

A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF SERVICE-LEARNING

DEFINITION

What is service-learning? Service-learning is often defined as an approach to teaching and learning in which service and learning are blended in a way that both occur and are enriched by the other. Service-learning is more than community service. Community service focuses on meeting the needs of service recipients, with little or no emphasis on learning. Service-learning, on the other hand, involves intentionally linking service activities with the academic curriculum to address real community needs while students learn through active engagement and reflection (Cairn & Kielsmeier, 1991).

PRINCIPLES

Essential principles of service-learning include (a) *high-quality service* to prepare students to address an actual, recognized community or school need; (b) *integrated learning* to tie the service activities to classroom knowledge, skill, and value goals; (c) *reflection* to help integrate students' service experiences with the academic curriculum; (d) *civic responsibility* to promote in students a sense of caring for others and a commitment to contribute to the community; (e) *student voice* to ensure students take an active role in choosing, planning, implementing, and evaluating the service-learning activities; (f) *collaboration* so all partners (students, parents, school and university faculty and administrators, community-based

organization staff, service recipients) benefit from the service project and contribute to its planning; and (g) *evaluation* to measure progress toward the learning and service goals. A more detailed list of principles of service-learning is included in Appendix A.

THEORY

Service-learning is supported by a variety of theories. Anderson and Guest (1995) sorted the multiple theoretical threads into five camps: experiential learning (Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984); transformational or social reconstructionist theory (Allam & Zerkin, 1993; Miller, 1988); multicultural education approaches (Sleeter & Grant, 1987); critical reflection (Sparks-Langer, Simmons, Pasch, Colton, & Starks, 1990; Sullivan, 1991); and education as preparation for civic responsibility (Coleman, 1974; Martin, 1976; Wade, 1997). This analysis helps to identify some of the various movements that have motivated and continue to motivate service-learning scholars and practitioners.

Jacoby and Associates (1996) refer to service-learning as a program, a pedagogy, and a philosophy. As a program, service-learning focuses on the achievement of goals that address human and community needs combined with “intentional learning goals and with conscious reflection and critical analysis” (Kendall, 1990, p. 20). As a pedagogy, service-learning is seen as a form of experiential education that relies heavily on reflection to ensure that learning occurs. Dewey, noting that not all experiences are genuinely or equally educative, proposed three criteria for determining the worth of experiences:

1. The individual grew, or would grow, intellectually and morally;
2. The larger community benefited from the learning over the long haul;
3. The experience resulted in conditions leading to further growth, such as arousing curiosity and strengthening initiative, desire, and purpose (1938, 1963).

Lewin’s experiential learning cycle, as elaborated by Kolb (1984), provides a practical tool for analyzing the manner in which service-learning can function most effectively as a pedagogy. This four-part cycle—concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation—is used in service-learning to structure service and learning activities as well as to emphasize the crucial nature of reflection.

Service-learning is also seen as a philosophy of “human growth and purpose, a social vision, an approach to community, and a way of knowing” (Kendall, 1990, p. 23). Key to understanding service-learning as a philosophy is a recognition of the central role that reciprocity plays in the social and educational exchange between learners and the people they serve (Stanton, 1990, p. 67).

EXAMPLES

Examples of service-learning in P-12 education are numerous. One case illustrates how integrated and impactful a service-learning project can become. In South Carolina, a middle school teacher reframed her environmental science course to involve students in applying their understanding of water purification and sanitation management to the study of water safety in their community. These students conducted sophisticated analyses of the water they were drinking and concluded that in many cases it was not safe. They next organized and presented their data and a plan for improving water quality in the community to the city council. This student leadership influenced positive citizen actions by others to improve water quality for all people.

Service-learning projects aimed at developing beginning teachers’ knowledge and skills are also numerous. Service-learning is a central component of the student teaching experience for prospective middle school teachers at California State University-San Marcos. These preservice teachers work with experienced teachers at six north San Diego County middle schools to revise curriculum units to include service-learning goals and activities—a time-consuming process that the middle school teachers do not have time to do. The student teachers meet regularly with the middle school teachers and their university professors to develop lesson plans that incorporate service-learning. During the second half of their student teaching experience, the preservice teachers create a complex service-learning project for an upcoming unit to be implemented in the near future.

Some of these service-learning projects are school based, such as creating a video to help fifth graders make the transition into middle school or planting a school garden. Other projects are community based, such as neighborhood beautification efforts or intergenerational projects with nearby nursing homes. All participants reflect on their experiences through written, oral, and artistic presentations. At the end of the student teaching

experience, the service-learning curriculum units are collected into a book and presented to the school board and numerous teachers. This innovative project allows preservice teachers to provide a service to P-12 teachers and students while they learn how to implement service-learning pedagogy.

SERVICE-LEARNING AND PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Preservice teachers typically engage in service-learning by working with children in need through schools and community agencies, assisting P-12 teachers in the design and implementation of service-learning activities with their students, and developing service-learning activities for use during student teaching (National Service-Learning in Teacher Education Partnership, 1998). Jones, Ryan, and Bohlin (1998) report that service-learning was the second most frequently used approach to character education among a national sample of teacher education programs, with 54% of their respondents citing it as being an important component of their program.

Teacher educators offer a variety of reasons for integrating service-learning in their programs, ranging from preparing new teachers to use service-learning as a pedagogy and achieving standards for teacher education, such as those put forth by the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), to helping socialize new teachers in the essential moral and civic obligations of teaching, including teaching with "care" and developing a commitment to social justice (Anderson, 1999) (see Chapter 1 by Verducci and Pope, "Rationales for Integrating Service-Learning in Teacher Education").

A number of studies have determined that teacher education students have largely positive attitudes toward and experiences with service-learning (Anderson & Guest, 1993; Boyle-Baise, 1997; Seigel, 1994; Wade & Yarbrough, 1997). Other researchers have found that participation in service-learning experiences in the preservice teacher education curriculum led to heightened self-esteem and self-efficacy, along with increased knowledge of service and increased connections with other people (Wade, 1995). In addition, several studies have compared service-learning participants with control groups of preservice teachers and found that service-learning participants developed a greater commitment to teaching than did nonparticipants (Flippo, Hertz, Gribonski, & Armstrong, 1993; Green, Dalton, & Wilson, 1994). Numerous studies indicate that participation in service-learning facilitates increased multicultural awareness and a greater capacity to serve students from diverse backgrounds (Boyle-Baise, 1997; Seigel, 1994; Kwartler,

1993; Tellez, Hlebowitsh, Cohen, & Norwood, 1995). Recent research also indicates that a strong majority (83%) of beginning teachers who participated in service-learning during their preservice preparation intend to use it as a pedagogy with their P-12 students and that 30% actually do so (Wade et al., 1999). (See Chapter 6 by Root and Furco for a detailed presentation of research on service-learning in preservice teacher education.)

Initial research results and the experiences of preservice teachers and teacher educators all suggest that service-learning can be a worthwhile and powerful learning experience. But there are also serious challenges to its successful use in preservice teacher education, including the already overcrowded curriculum, lack of faculty time to implement service-learning, the perception that service-learning is not aligned with institutional and teacher education program missions and goals, and lack of alignment of service-learning with institutional faculty roles and rewards (Anderson & Pickeral, 2000).

Creative teacher educators have devised approaches that surmount or work around these challenges. For example, a number of teacher education programs, including those at Providence College, California State University-San Marcos, CSU-Chico, and New England College, help their preservice teachers experience a variety of service-learning projects and gain a solid understanding of service-learning as a pedagogy without requiring an additional course or forcing a major alteration of the curriculum of any one course. This outcome can be accomplished by implementing the following suggestions:

1. Use part of an initial professional education course such as Introduction to Teaching to introduce preservice teachers to service-learning and engage them in a group or individual service-learning project. The course can focus on preservice teachers working in P-12 schools to address unmet needs while learning about school and classroom organization and teachers' roles and responsibilities.
2. Tie service-learning experience to a multicultural education, human relations, or social foundations of education course. Doing so might include working with community agencies other than schools that provide services to children and families from a cultural background different from that of the preservice teacher.
3. Present theories, rationales, and research that underlie effective service-learning as part of an educational psychology course.

4. Teach methods to assess P-12 students' service-learning outcomes in a course on assessment.
5. Include the basics of how to use service-learning as a pedagogy in an instructional methods course.
6. Have preservice teachers work with experienced P-12 teachers and their students to design and implement a service-learning project as part of their student teaching experience (see Chapter 28 by Callahan, Davis, and Hill, "Teaching the Pedagogy of Service-Learning").

ORGANIZATION OF THIS BOOK

This book focuses on providing teacher educators and practicing professionals with information on the conceptual, research, and application areas of service-learning in preservice teacher education. It includes key concepts and strategies that enhance the potential for increasing the effectiveness of service-learning as a pedagogy in teacher education.

The offerings in this book are grouped in five main parts. Part 1 deals with theories, standards, and principles of practice; Part 2 includes several research studies and reviews as well as a suggested framework for further research and development; Part 3 explicates 11 different approaches to implementing service-learning in teacher education in the form of case studies; Part 4 deals with administrative and organizational arrangements as well as issues surrounding the teaching of service-learning, diversity, and assessment; and Part 5 presents thoughts for the future from Don Hill, one of service-learning's long-standing adherents and researchers, and an annotated bibliography.

The case studies, research, and theory highlighted in this book provide clear documentation as to what has already been accomplished with service-learning in preservice teacher education. They also offer a picture of the work that remains to be done. Issues ranging from adequate faculty support to academic integrity and formal recognition of service-learning in the tenure and promotion process all must be successfully addressed to ensure that service-learning produces optimal benefits for preservice teachers, P-12 students, and communities, without overloading faculty.

Despite these challenges, we remain optimistic regarding the value of service-learning to enhance teacher preparation and P-12 education. Service-learning invites us to see the purposes of education as much

broad than only preparing scholars, technicians, and job-seekers. In addition to these important goals, service-learning offers an approach that has the potential to facilitate the psychological and social development of learners, enhance appreciation for all individuals and cultures in our diverse world, and prepare students to assume the role of active citizens in our democracy, working for justice for all.

Based on our experiences with service learning, it is our conviction that service-learning—more than any other approach in common usage in our public schools—provides educators with a pedagogy powerful enough to achieve these difficult but crucial goals. It is our hope that this book provides some of the inspiration, research, theory, and practical knowledge needed to support readers in their efforts to work with preservice teachers, P-12 students and educators, and other community members to reach these high expectations.

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THEORIES, STANDARDS, AND PRINCIPLES THAT PROMOTE GOOD PRACTICE

The upsurge of interest in service-learning in teacher education has, for the most part, been manifested by individual teacher educators who have taken the initiative to experiment with service-learning in the preservice courses they teach, and a few institutions that have adopted service-learning on a program-wide basis. Although these practitioners have begun to examine the foundations and theories that can provide a firm basis for success with service-learning in teacher education, much service-learning curricular integration has occurred without the benefit of a theoretical foundation broad enough to encompass the diversity of service-learning goals, practices, and outcomes. In addition, faculty and administrators have too frequently proceeded on a trial and error basis in their efforts to institutionalize and refine the quality of their service-learning practices.

This part of the book offers readers a variety of rationales for the use of service-learning, a discussion of psychological bases of success with service-learning, a theoretical framework for understanding the process of institutionalizing service-learning in teacher education, an examination of service-learning linkages with standards-based teacher education, and principles of good practice for service-learning in teacher education.

A well-developed, comprehensive theoretical and practical foundation is essential to maximize the learning and growth that can occur through thoughtfully developed service-learning experiences. The theories, standards, and principles presented in this part of the book come both from fields outside service-learning and from the experiences of teacher educators engaged with their students and communities in service activities tied to the curriculum. Both of these sources of knowledge are helpful to realize the full potential of service-learning as a pedagogy, a program, and a philosophy.

CHAPTER 1

RATIONALES FOR INTEGRATING SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

■ SUSAN VERDUCCI AND DENISE POPE

Listen to the current buzz about service-learning, and you may hear that it is the antidote to what ails our nation's education system. Teachers, administrators, parents, professors, politicians, and business leaders alike extol the virtues of integrating community service with classroom instruction. They say with passion and conviction that service-learning has the potential to increase students' engagement with the curriculum, foster moral and civic values, enrich students' content area knowledge, enhance critical-thinking and problem-solving abilities, and develop skills for future career opportunities (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Pollack, 1999; Astin & Sax, 1998; Bhaerman, 1997; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Conrad & Hedin, 1991).

As educators implement service-learning in their classrooms, they realize that not all of this rhetoric is hype. At the P-12 and university level, practitioners are using service-learning strategies with growing success. Recent research shows that service-learning helps schools and communities work together to solve educational problems and meet real community needs. Students become excited about school and are motivated to learn; they show increased social and personal responsibility and positive changes in academic performance (Weiler et al., 1998; Melchior et al., 1997). Inspired by these results, more and more teachers are experimenting with service-learning. In 1997, Wutzdorff and Giles wrote, "Service-learning is growing so fast that even those of us who study the field find it hard to track all the emerging developments" (p. 109). In the years since, the service-learning movement has continued to mushroom.

A consequence of the growth of service-learning in mainstream education circles is that more teacher educators are beginning to consider integrating this strategy into their own classrooms and programs. We know from our experience as service-learning educators that the process of implementing service-learning can be quite daunting. It is not easy to bridge the wide chasm that exists among schools, universities, and com-

munities. Nor is it always easy to reform traditional teaching and learning habits. This may seem ironic in schools of education, but education is a field peppered with school reform fads and ever-changing innovations. Teacher educators are often forced to choose which trends to endorse and which to ignore, knowing that many of these reform efforts will fade out as quickly as they exploded onto the scene.

This chapter articulates reasons why some faculty and schools of education have taken on the significant challenge of using service-learning. In an effort to provide guidance for those at the beginning stages of integration, we ask and provide some help in answering the question: Why bother with service-learning in teacher education? We begin with an exploration of five rationales for infusing service-learning in schools of education. It is followed by a section on external and internal supports that help educators in the process of integration. We draw our examples from the work that we do with the Service Learning 2000 Center, a project of Stanford University. Over the past years, we have worked closely with 14 teacher education programs in their efforts to integrate service-learning into their programs. One of our main conclusions is that teacher education programs tend to shape their rationales to align with institutional contexts and needs. At the end of the paper, we suggest how schools might use the information provided here to form site-specific rationales and to help determine or strengthen efforts toward institutionalization of service-learning.

RATIONALES

As indicated earlier, service-learning has begun to take on mythic proportions in what educators claim it can accomplish. Jeremy Leeds (1999) aptly sums this up when he writes that service-learning is “burdened with bloated rhetoric” about the ends it serves (p. 120). Regardless of whether practitioners think it is, as Leeds tells us, the “key to the revitalization of American education” or “the latest oversold innovation,” there are theoretically sound and empirically demonstrated reasons to include service-learning in teacher education programs (p. 113). Although by no means offering an exhaustive list, this section enumerates several rationales that are used to support service-learning:

- Service-learning is an effective pedagogy for teaching and learning.
- Service-learning is a means to foster social understanding, civic participation, and/or social transformation.

- Service-learning provides civic, social, moral, and personal benefits for participants.
- Service-learning prepares students for the workforce (work-based learning).
- Service-learning aligns with standards.

Other sound rationales exist for including service-learning in teacher education programs. We chose these five because they were cited many times in reports submitted to us by the teacher education programs in our collaborative. It is not our intention to offer a menu for selection but to use these general (and sometimes overlapping) rationales to provide ideas and stimulate discussion in institutions considering implementing service-learning.

SERVICE-LEARNING IS AN EFFECTIVE PEDAGOGY FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING

This is one of the most popular rationales cited by teacher educators. Given that service-learning falls under the general rubric of experiential education, it brings with it all the best empirical support for the theory and practice of actively engaging students of all ages in learning. From John Dewey's (1933; 1938) theoretical work on experiential education to the analysis of actual service-learning programs and participants, there is general consensus that service-learning can foster problem-solving and critical-thinking skills and that it can lead to gains in academic engagement and understanding (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Astin & Sax, 1998; Meyers & Pickeral, 1997).

These same benefits apply to teacher education students. In best practices, teacher education students who participate in service-learning can improve knowledge and understanding in multiple ways. As faculty members at the University of Nevada Reno write:

Our students have the opportunity to increase their subject matter knowledge, curricular knowledge, and their pedagogical knowledge by participating in service-learning projects. . . . As an example, methods students in one course work with P-12 students preparing to participate in the Great Basin Chautauqua. Their subject matter knowledge was increased as they helped these young people research their historical characters. Their pedagogical knowledge increased as they developed

strategies to constructively critique student performances and structure small groups. The experience . . . also solidified understanding of the service-learning methodology.

Through service-learning, teacher education students can improve their understanding of the academic content of their courses, gain valuable pedagogical skills, and practice using service-learning as a teaching methodology. Plenty of empirical support from P-12 indicates that service-learning supports teaching and learning in general (Root, 1997), and a growing amount of research from teacher education shows that it supports the particular outcomes of the field of education as well (see Chapter 6, "A Review of Research on Service-Learning in Preservice Teacher Education").

In particular, several programs within our collaborative mentioned that they used service-learning to help future teachers gain effective strategies for working with diverse learners and to help understand the communities in which they will teach. The faculty at Humboldt State University in northern California wants students to understand the socioeconomics of teaching in rural communities, so they send students to help in rural classrooms in neighboring Native American reservations. Similarly, Mount St. Mary's College in Los Angeles has a range of preservice teachers with widely disparate backgrounds. The faculty there see the power of service-learning for helping their students to understand "the reality" of their diverse communities. Gloria, a teacher educator who works with mostly middle-class students entering the profession, writes that her students "seem disconnected, as though they are looking at the [diverse] world [of L.A.] through a window. They see every social ill as foreign and something you read about in a book." Another professor, Jackie, teaches in the bilingual immersion program at Mount St. Mary's College. She works with a population of preservice teachers whose demographics are closer to those of their future students. Her students "often had a very large disconnect between their world at home and their classroom. Empowering them to make a difference in their community engages them in the learning process and connects their home world with school." The faculty members conclude that "Service-learning can provide a reconnection to reality [for both groups of students] . . . and can blur the lines between the schools and communities."

Teacher educators cite service-learning as also effective for teaching and learning in that it encourages practices consistent with curricular reform efforts, including interdisciplinary work and authentic assessment. For instance, teacher candidates in an adolescent development class at California State University-San Bernardino are required to provide a workshop to a group of teenagers on a critical issue in adolescence. Workshop topics are determined by the adolescents and can take candidates into issues such as conflict resolution or the media's effect on youth culture. The candidates must draw upon theories and empirical work from sociology and communications studies in their preparation for the workshops. These disciplines do not usually find their way into what tends to be the psychology-driven field of development or into the subject matter that most secondary teachers study. Thus, teacher education students have opportunities to draw on knowledge and skills usually considered outside the content and methods of traditional teacher education. The same cross-disciplinary opportunities hold for candidates involved in designing and implementing their own service-learning projects; at times they will need to go outside their content area to successfully implement the project. Since service-learning can simultaneously encourage interdisciplinary and authentic problem solving as well as pedagogical content knowledge, teacher educators see it as a strategy for meeting several of their teaching and learning goals.

Teacher educators who believe in the power of service-learning to enhance teaching and learning want to prepare preservice candidates to use the strategy in their future classrooms. Though the form that this preparation takes may vary, the aims are the same (see Part 3 for a view of various approaches). It did not matter whether teacher educators in our collaborative were teaching the pedagogy of service-learning, having students perform service-learning in connection with education courses, or requiring students to implement it in their field experiences; in each case the educators wanted to pass on the principles and practices of service-learning because of their beneficial effect on teaching and learning.

SERVICE-LEARNING IS A MEANS TO FOSTER SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING, CIVIC PARTICIPATION, AND/OR SOCIAL TRANSFORMATION

Another goal for teacher educators is to foster improved relations between the university and the community. Phrases like "the engaged campus" and

“community and university partnerships” now have a place in the vernacular of higher education. Part of this focus on community stems from a renewed concern on the part of universities and P-12 schools that students take seriously their responsibilities as citizens of the United States. This concern translates into promoting the understanding of the country’s social structures and participation in civic discourse and action toward social justice. As mentioned earlier, service-learning can cultivate sensitivity to issues of diversity (Eyler & Giles, 1999; see also Chapter 27, “Multicultural Service-Learning in Teacher Education”). It can also make candidates aware of issues and problems of equity, equality, power, voice, and resources in education. Through service activities and reflection, teacher education students can examine the structures that create and perpetuate the needs that they are meeting through service. They can begin to view their roles as civic educators as well as content specialists. As such, the teachers become role models for students as they actively participate in their communities.

Other theorists claim that service-learning is a means to social transformation, a vehicle to redistribute power and resources (Donahue, 1999; Kahne & Westheimer, 1996). In this view, teachers are agents of social change. Teacher candidates can be guided to address social, political, economic, and cultural injustices through service-learning projects that advocate for these goods. This position aligns with research that indicates an increase in social responsibility among participating students (Giles & Eyler, 1994, 1996; Kendrick, 1996) and that students who engage in service-learning activities are more likely to perceive social concerns as more personal (Rhoads, 1997; Giles & Eyler, 1994).

One program that explicitly uses service-learning to foster social understanding and civic participation as well as a means for social change can be found at Mills College in Oakland. Dave Donahue, a Mills professor and coordinator of “Mills Cares,” uses service-learning in his social studies methods courses because it “makes explicit for new teachers the political and moral nature of teaching, an aspect of teaching . . . found absent or lacking in many teacher education programs” (Donahue, 1999, p. 686). Donahue asks candidates to write curriculum for community agencies that have a history of advocacy or of addressing causes of social injustice. In the course of designing lessons for these agencies, the teacher education students often encounter several dilemmas that encourage them to

view teaching as an activity “shaped by many different contexts and that requires choices with moral and political implications” (p. 693). Questions emerge: What kind of service is appropriate to endorse? Should a teacher allow, even promote, students to participate in controversial actions such as boycotts and sit-ins? How do teachers help to shape students’ perceptions without coercing or overstepping their roles? Because all teachers, not just those who use service-learning, make value-laden choices in their daily practice of designing and implementing curriculum, service-learning projects that encourage such moral examination of practice seem particularly useful. For Donahue, service-learning represents “one, though not the only, vehicle for questioning the norms of classrooms and re-imagining schools” (p. 694).

SERVICE-LEARNING PROVIDES CIVIC, SOCIAL, MORAL, AND PERSONAL BENEFITS FOR PARTICIPANTS

The third rationale moves the focus from one on communities to that of individual students. A substantial bulk of the empirical literature clearly indicates that service-learning provides civic, social, moral, and personal benefits for students (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Kraft, 1998; Root, 1997; Giles & Eyler, 1996; Kendrick, 1996; Waterman, 1993; Delve, Mintz, & Stewart, 1990). In her review of the literature, for instance, Root (1997) suggests that social and moral development is enhanced and that personal development in terms of outcomes such as efficacy, self-esteem, confidence in political and social skills, and building relationships with others is increased. Those who choose careers working with children especially need to enhance these personal skills and sensitivities. At Santa Clara University, preservice teachers work in teams at social service agencies during the fall quarter. They plan a service project, keep a reflective log, and present a final product as a way to “build competence, conscience and compassion.” The faculty at Santa Clara are interested in fostering “caring, reflective practitioners,” and the university believes that service-learning is one effective way to develop these competencies in future teachers.

Eyler and Giles (1999) found that participation in service-learning projects positively influences tolerance. Students reported personal and interpersonal development in terms of increasing self-knowledge, spiritual growth, and personal efficacy, and finding reward in helping others. We had similar findings with education students in our collaborative. One

teacher candidate from the University of California-Riverside describes her positive experiences tutoring and mentoring a recent immigrant from Mexico who spoke no English. The child was placed in a third-grade classroom despite his language challenges:

Though he had such difficulties with his schoolwork, this courageous boy put so much effort into school. I was so blessed to have an opportunity to work with such a hardworking student. Truly, this service-learning project has not only provided a service to students but has been of great service to me as well.

SERVICE-LEARNING PREPARES STUDENTS FOR THE WORKFORCE (WORK-BASED LEARNING)

Service-learning has been called the Trojan horse of school reform, as it pushes on some of the traditional constraints found in P-12 classrooms (Nathan & Kielsmeier, 1991). It challenges the notion that students learn best in neat, 50-minute chunks divided by subject areas and followed by large doses of seatwork and pen-and-paper quizzes and tests. As Carter (1997) writes, "Service-learning offers a philosophical challenge to traditional ways of thinking about education. . . . As students perform a service activity that applies curriculum concepts, they can see how the learning in separate disciplines is in fact interrelated, and how that learning applies to their own lives" (p. 70). In fact, high-quality service-learning lends itself to many of the approaches advocated by school reform organizations (Bhaerman, Cordell, & Gomez, 1998). The fourth rationale we describe here relies on one such reform movement called "work-based learning."

In an effort to better prepare P-12 students for the world of work and to make classroom learning more relevant and engaging, educators use service-learning strategies to make direct connections between concepts taught in the classroom and real-life applications. Practitioners in higher education and in professional schools recognize the value of service-learning to help prepare students for the world of work in terms of internships and fieldwork. Though educators vigorously debate whether student teaching and other internships "count" as service-learning, many teacher educators use service-learning experiences outside traditional student teaching to introduce undergraduate and graduate students to life in classrooms and to the many career paths that involve working with children.

Education students can learn how well they are (or are not) suited to work with children by experiencing classroom life and other situations first-hand in the role of a tutor or mentor or in other volunteer positions. Instead of waiting until the candidates have already invested time and energy in career preparation and are into the student teaching phase of their programs, teacher educators can design service-learning projects early to help students and faculty alike assess the fit between the candidate and a future career in education.

This is particularly salient for undergraduate education programs like those in the California State University system. One California State University-Fullerton professor working in teacher education explains that he asks students to teach critical-thinking and literacy skills to elementary students. Not only does this help his students improve their own critical-thinking skills, but it also allows them to “work in classrooms to find out if they truly want to be teachers” before it is “too late” to change programs and career paths. Given the tremendous needs that P-12 schools have for adult volunteers, service-learning projects with teacher education students can effectively meet both the needs of the schools and the important need of introducing education students to classroom life.

Another benefit of using service-learning for workforce preparation in teacher education is that it may introduce future teachers to a community or group of students with whom they might not otherwise have contact. For example, candidates in a teacher education program at California State University-Chico perform service-learning projects with special education students. In this way, candidates have hands-on experiences working with different student populations and may learn valuable information about various niches and specialties in teaching.

As a way to educate future teachers about working with children and to strengthen their pedagogical and content knowledge, service-learning can be seen as a potential method for workforce preparation. It also aligns well with some of the standards created for preparing effective teachers.

SERVICE-LEARNING ALIGNS WITH STANDARDS

The fifth rationale also comes from the school reform movement. It embodies many of the other rationales mentioned above and is a direct and necessary reaction to the growing use of standards in all educational levels. In California, for instance, *California Standards for the Teaching*

Profession lists specific requirements for teacher education faculty and students. A common concern running through the California standards pertains to working with diverse populations and preparing teachers to meet diverse learning styles. In the introduction to the standards, the California Teacher Credentialing Office writes:

Professional educators in the State of California are serving the most diverse population of students in the history of education. This diversity among students can greatly enrich and enliven the educational experience. There is a critical need for teachers who are responsive to the diverse cultural, racial, religious, ethnic, linguistic, and socioeconomic backgrounds of all students (California Commission on the Teaching Profession, 1997).

As mentioned, service-learning projects can be designed to address these issues of diversity and can serve as models for using a variety of techniques to reach diverse learners.

Service-learning can also assist teacher educators in meeting national standards. In a memo to the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) executive board, a group of teacher educators from the National Service-Learning in Teacher Education Project delineated how service-learning “provides a framework for reaching several major standards from the NCATE 2000 document: Standard 1. Candidate knowledge, skills and dispositions; Standard 3. Field experiences and clinical practice; and Standard 4. Diversity” (2000). Chapter 5, “Principles of Good Practice for Service-Learning in Preservice Teacher Education,” offers examples of how service-learning ties rather neatly to these credentialing requirements and standards set for new teachers, especially in areas such as planning techniques and instructional strategies. A more detailed discussion can be found in Chapter 4, “Service-Learning and Standards-Based Teacher Education.”

Thus, the five service-learning rationales used most frequently by the 14 California teacher education schools with whom we worked include concerns for (a) teaching and learning; (b) social and civic understanding, participation, and transformation; (c) civic, social, moral, and personal benefits for participants; (d) workforce preparation; and (e) standards. Each rationale can be and has been used by P-12 educators as well, and we make the argument here that they are just as relevant in teacher education.

SUPPORT TO INTEGRATE SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Just as P-12 service-learning efforts have been bolstered by internal and external sources of support, teacher educators are benefiting from increased interest and investment in service-learning. Sources both external and internal to colleges and universities are encouraging educators to adopt service-learning practices. For many of the public universities, support has been growing steadily over the past few years and may serve as incentive for educators to become involved.

EXTERNAL SUPPORTS

Teacher educators in each of the 14 programs we worked with talk in some manner about feeling “squeezed” by school reform pressures. Media and politicians focus the nation’s attention on what they dramatically call the “crisis in American education.” They point to low test scores and school violence, and warn that civic and moral degeneration is sweeping our youth. The tragedy at Columbine, Colorado, represents one stark example of this trend and its presentation by the media. Given that service-learning has been linked to positive social and civic outcomes, practitioners across the country look to this reform strategy as one way to appease public outcry and to address the needs of the nation’s young people (Haycock, 1996; Silcox, 1993; Williams, 1993; Conrad & Hedin, 1991).

Teacher educators feel spurred by federal and state policies. In California, State Superintendent Delaine Easton has proclaimed that by 2004, 50% of all school districts will provide each student with at least one service-learning experience at each level of education (elementary, middle, and secondary) (California Department of Education, 1999). To help facilitate this goal, Easton formed a task force on service-learning that explicitly recommended including service-learning in teacher education (pp. 41-43). On another front, in summer 1999, Governor Gray Davis requested that California’s public colleges and universities mandate a community service requirement for all undergraduate students. Education Secretary Gary Hart spoke more specifically about the requirement, articulating it in terms of service-learning. These recommendations have been particularly salient for California schools of education. Even though the governor has withdrawn his request to mandate service-learning, he now recommends providing opportunities for every student to do service.

Many California teacher educators who advocate service-learning see cause for celebration. A particularly helpful consequence of the increased interest in service-learning is that it has generated funding streams and organizational support of service-learning practices on campuses. For example, about six months after making his request to mandate service for undergraduates, Gray Davis set aside money in his 2000-01 budget for tutoring programs. The California State University system has hired a systemwide community service-learning coordinator and representatives at each of the 20-odd campuses. Increased national funding is also coming; President Clinton's 2000-01 budget initiative includes an increase of nearly \$120 million for the Corporation for National Service. Not surprisingly, organizations have popped up on the national, state, and local levels to support service-learning efforts. From national organizations such as Campus Compact, whose members consist of university and college presidents, to local nonprofit community organizations that work directly with teachers and children, fiscal and organizational support systems are on the rise.

INTERNAL SUPPORTS

As external supports for service-learning in teacher education institutions increase in response to public and policy concerns, so do internal supports. Several institutions in California have revised their mission statements to include plans to connect more closely to the communities where they are located. Many have set up university organizations to help facilitate school-community connections. For example, one of the three strands in the mission statement for California State University-San Bernardino is to strengthen community and university partnerships, and the school has created a Community-University Partnerships Center specifically to address this goal. Others, like the Office of the President of the University of California, have created internal grant processes to offer necessary funding to promote these efforts. As service-learning has the potential to break down the walls between the classroom and the community, advocates of service-learning are using these internal organizations and grants to further support service-learning pedagogy in their departments.

Similarly, some private universities and colleges such as Santa Clara University in California and public institutions such as California State University-Monterey Bay, have written agendas of service into their mis-

sion statements. Faculty and students alike at these schools are expected to incorporate community service and/or service-learning into their educational experiences. These mission statements may be viewed as sources of pressure or support. The expectation to integrate service-learning into course curricula or to work to promote school-community relations may cause some faculty members to feel constrained, but a school with a mission statement like this one usually includes several built-in forms of support—funding to cover costs of implementation, professional development, service-learning coordinators or community liaisons, and buy-in from deans and department chairs to encourage efforts to align curricula and research goals with the mission.

Individual faculty members can also provide support to colleagues and can act as valuable resources. A good number of teacher educators in our collaborative had already been using some form of service in their courses and have become advocates for it within their departments and colleges. A professor's passion can be contagious, and the positive experiences of students can motivate other teachers to follow suit. Even successful service-learning courses in other departments can have a ripple effect, encouraging teacher educators to experiment in their own field. This is the case at California State University-Fullerton, where a service-learning course in the philosophy department spurred education faculty to incorporate service-learning into their undergraduate teacher education program.

Faculty advocates, internal efforts to connect universities and colleges with their communities, and schools with mission statements that include service-learning all can support the institutionalization of service-learning in teacher education from inside university walls.

CONDITIONS FOR SELECTING AND DEVELOPING RATIONALES

As teacher education institutions begin to respond to these supports by integrating service-learning into their programs, they strive to base their actions on sound theory and thoughtful reasoning. In doing so, educators may draw upon any or all of the rationales presented here. Our work has indicated that the rationales that seem to be most effective—those that lead to institutional buy-in and widespread support among stakeholders—are those that are organic and specific to the individual institution. Though we have not conducted a formal study and do not have a very large data set, our experience indicates that certain cookie-cutter rationales are least likely

to be successful. Statements of intent that merely capitalize on support from outside sources or trends described in the literature do not seem to generate substantial internal support.

We recommend that before determining the usefulness of incorporating service-learning into a teacher education program, faculty, staff members, and other stakeholders need to reflect on their particular program goals and objectives. We suggest going through an institutional self-assessment process where stakeholders answer several questions: What is the current status of service-learning in the education department? What are current and potential sources of support for infusing service-learning into the institution? How does service-learning relate to the mission of the institution? How will teacher education be improved at the institution if service-learning efforts are successful? Which program areas are best targeted for service-learning?

Answering these questions and others like them is not easy, but it is necessary. At the very least, the process of self-assessment will lead to a discussion of the meaning of service-learning and its potential value. It will help faculty members and others to evaluate existing resources, such as experienced service-learning practitioners, campus centers designed to work with community members, internal grants, and funding streams, to mention only a few. Answering these questions may also highlight possible obstacles and may lead educators to question the feasibility of pursuing service-learning integration without devising strategies to overcome these obstacles. We believe such conversations are critical and best done at initial stages if service-learning is to become institutionalized.

As support to adopt service-learning in teacher education increases, the risks increase for service-learning to become another annoyance or meaningless add-on used to appease state and national policy makers. If teacher educators are committed to service-learning and its potential benefits, they need to create rationales that address real institutional needs and fit with particular school cultures. The current buzz on service-learning might be enough to ignite some interest (and possibly several skeptics), but it cannot serve as a reason to adopt service-learning practices. Only through careful reflection and thoughtful planning can teacher educators develop rationales that may be effective in leading to widespread adoption. We began this chapter questioning why bother with service-learning in teacher education. We hope the rationales and supports presented here

offer a variety of answers to that question and will lead to a better understanding of service-learning in general and to a stronger institutional infusion of service-learning practices in the field of teacher education.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL BASES OF EFFECTIVE SERVICE-LEARNING

■ JOSEPH A. ERICKSON AND TONI SANTMIRE

This chapter examines the psychological bases of effective service-learning. It is our contention that exemplary service-learning practice has a strong basis in psychological theory and practice and that an examination of service-learning from the psychological perspective yields a tremendous amount of helpful information for the service-learning practitioner. This analysis reveals for us not only what we should do to provide the most effective service-learning but also raises many cautions and concerns. In fact, we believe that to be ignorant of these psychological precepts may lead to counterintuitive outcomes that are the opposite from that which most service-learning practitioners would have anticipated. It may very well be the case that those attempting to implement service-learning in their classrooms may do more harm than good if they engage in service-learning that does not fulfill certain minimum requirements suggested by what psychologists have learned. In this chapter, we attempt to enunciate the most important factors that fulfill these minimum requirements and describe what truly exemplary service-learning practice might look like from a psychological perspective.

HISTORY OF SERVICE AND SERVICE-BASED LEARNING WITHIN PSYCHOLOGY

The application of the specific pedagogical technique we call service-learning is relatively recent, but its roots are very old. Many religious and cultural traditions have attempted to impress upon their adherents a service ethic, from the common-good value of American Indian cultures to the Good Samaritan story in the Christian tradition. Each of these traditions has held in high regard the importance of education for the common good.

In the history of North American psychology, field-based experience and service for the common good characterizes the work of such important psychologists as Lewin and Dewey. Dewey's vision of a democratic

education has at its core an education that accomplishes much more than merely acquiring factual mastery (1938). Lewin's lifelong work to apply social research to solving social problems is also an example of psychology's tradition of public service (1999). In these two men's work, we see service as a crucial element of what it means to be a psychologist.

We can also turn to Lewin and Dewey for examples of the learning component of service-learning. Dewey emphasizes that experience is the foundation of all education. Lewin's often imitated experiential learning model gives us a practical tool for analyzing the manner in which we introduce students to new ideas and the ways students integrate this new knowledge into their lives. Each would argue that learning without practical experience is not only irrelevant but also impossible. This position finds its modern proponents in the views of Piaget and Vygotsky, who argue for the contextual and social bases of formal knowledge, and of Lave and Wenger (1991), who developed the concept of situated learning.

The combination of service and learning in service-learning gives learners an opportunity to "do good" and at the same time realize more effective cognitive retention of important academic concepts. Thus, we deal here with service-learning in relation to both personal and social outcomes and achievement outcomes in learners.

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL OUTCOMES AND SERVICE-LEARNING

Many practitioners of service-learning have asserted that service-learning is a pedagogy that can change values and attitudes. What is known about attitude change and these other related outcomes? Do we know anything about the optimal conditions under which service-learning should be conducted to have impact in these areas? This section investigates these questions and attempts to promote a framework out of which future practice of service-learning might be shaped as an effective social and personal change tool.

SERVICE-LEARNING'S IMPACT ON ATTITUDE AND VALUE CHANGE

Claims regarding service-learning's effectiveness as an attitude change agent come from practitioners and participants who have observed attitude change among service-learning participants. While these anecdotal claims are often compelling, what does the research suggest are the underlying factors at play?

One may trace the theoretical basis for claims of service-learning's efficacy as a social change tool all the way back to Dewey (1938). Dewey's theory of experience has formed the foundation for experiential education's claim that learning through experience is superior to passive or rote learning. Others extended Dewey's thinking to the practice of service-learning (e.g., Giles, 1991). Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle plots a path for engaging learners in an active reflection process that, he has demonstrated, has positive outcomes for learning and retention (1975, 1984). The standard practice of service-learning has been shaped by these pioneers' formulations. These theories also form the basis for evaluating what is appropriate service-learning practice.

More recently, others have claimed that the theoretical basis for service-learning is consistent with attitude change theories, including self-perception theory, cognitive consistency, and social judgment (Covey, 1994). Many standard texts in which service-learning practice is discussed feature claims of service-learning's effectiveness in changing negative social attitudes toward outgroups (i.e., target groups of people about which one has a stereotypic, biased, or prejudiced set of attitudes and/or beliefs). For example, Delve, Mintz, and Stewart (1990) draw on frequent examples illustrating ways in which service-learning creates the necessary conditions for positive attitude and value change. When effective programming (such as that that attempts to follow the ASLER principles of effective service-learning practice proposed by Honnet & Poulsen [1989]) is committed to participation with diverse populations, students report that their stereotypes break down and that they learn to appreciate cultural differences when they engage in culturally integrated activities. In addition, Milton (cited in Kendall & Associates, 1990) notes that mutual respect between the givers and the receivers of service is also essential. She contends that while it is time-consuming to develop mutual respect, it must be an essential element of the service-learning partnership for the experience to be good for all.

Alternately, Kendall and Associates (1990) have suggested that service-learning programs may do more harm than good if they are too short or are given too little attention by participants. This warning is echoed by others (Erickson & O'Connor, 2000), who suggest too little attention is paid to a precise understanding of the theoretical assumptions necessary for service-learning to be effective at changing its participants' attitudes.

The authors and resources cited here provide hints and clues regarding the conditions under which authentic attitude change might occur during service-learning activities, but to more completely understand this issue, we suggest that a more precise and relevant social theoretical framework needs to be applied to this challenge. To do so, we will look at the research on prejudice, the prototypical area of attitude change theory.

MINIMUM CONDITIONS TO REDUCE PREJUDICE: CONTACT THEORY

We will use Contact Theory (CT) to provide a theoretical framework from which we can evaluate the potential effectiveness of service-learning as an attitude change tool. CT, also called the contact hypothesis, was introduced and developed by social psychologists to examine and evaluate the various conditions under which face-to-face contact would promote greater personal and social understanding between members of different ethnic and racial groups (Allport, 1954; Cook, 1985; Amir, 1969). CT traces the minimum necessary conditions through which favorable experiences with individual members of an outgroup may be transmitted or generalized to one's group-related attitudes (Pettigrew, 1988; Rothbart, 1996). While several important limitations and clarifications to CT have been proposed over the years—primarily concerns regarding the context(s) in which varied social identities are aroused (e.g., Brewer & Miller, 1984; Pettigrew, 1988; Brewer, 1996; Gaertner, Dovidio, & Bachman, 1996; Wittig & Grant-Thompson, 1998)—the elements of CT can continue to be characterized as the minimum, but not sufficient, conditions under which positive attitude change is likely to occur.

The necessary conditions under which contact inhibits or reduces prejudice are (a) pursuit of common goals, (b) equal status contact, (c) contact that contradicts stereotypes, (d) long-term contact, and (e) social norms (cultural *Zeitgeist*) that favor contact (Cook, 1985).

In the context of service-learning, the pursuit of common goals, the first necessary condition, refers to the nature of the task on which both the service provider and the recipient are working. If the goals are parallel—for example, when potential owners and volunteers work together to build a Habitat for Humanity house—then both share a common goal, providing housing for the homebuyer. While many client-recipient relationships may appear to be in pursuit of common goals, the relationship between service provider and recipient may be perceived by one or the

other as adversarial, as, for example, in the case of many teacher-student interactions. It is when the relationship is authentically in pursuit of common goals that prejudice may be reduced.

Equal status contact, the second necessary condition, refers to the extent to which the provider and recipient of service possess a fairly equal amount of social status. This equality is very difficult in many community service interactions because of the stigma implied by being needy in some way—not owning a house, not knowing how to read, for example—by being the “down” in an up-down relationship. If the community service relationship between recipient and provider can be characterized by either the participants or outside observers as an up-down relationship, the service activity is probably a violation of the equal status condition. In service-learning activities that focus on helping community members solve a common problem such as pollution, no one (or perhaps everyone) in the partnership can be characterized as being “needy.” In this sort of situation, all participants, service recipients and providers alike, share an equal status.

Often the contact that occurs in a service interaction may fall into already established stereotypical patterns—for example, when low-income Black students receive tutorial help with reading skills from White college students. While the Black students may benefit from additional assistance with their reading, the college students’ preexisting negative stereotypes may be reinforced rather than challenged, with the result stable or even greater stereotyping and prejudice by the service-providing college students. In these sorts of interactions, skillful teachers need to provide interactions in the classroom that contradict prevailing negative stereotypes, the third necessary condition. With a little planning and prior knowledge of the service recipients’ strengths and weaknesses, teachers can guide the tutors’ interactions so that tutoring can include help in low-skill domains and opportunities to tutor others in areas in which the students are already competent. When one thinks beyond the deficit model of “helping the needy” and starts to include the strengths of the service recipient, he or she can begin to provide participants with a platform on which their prevailing stereotypes can be contradicted.

Casual, quick, and/or superficial interactions rouse stereotyping. Because of practical concerns and other factors, many service interactions are short and superficial. Without the fourth necessary condition, contact that is long term in intensity or duration, service relationships can again

actually increase the degree and severity of stereotyping behavior. The solution, while not necessarily easy to provide, is simple to understand: carry out service relationship over longer periods of time. Service relationships can be tied to overarching curricular goals that are addressed in multiple classrooms throughout a school year, or even over several years. In this way, service relationships can escape the time-limiting tyranny of an instructional unit or school term.

Finally, social psychologists suggest that the prevailing social norms of a community must favor contact between members of the outgroup, the fifth necessary condition. This condition may be the most difficult to meet, because it apparently is entirely out of our control. How can we control the spirit of the times in our community, region, or nation? Nevertheless, we can be savvy enough to pick service topics and projects that provide optimal opportunity to exploit a favorable *Zeitgeist* or to lie close enough to the prevailing community sentiment that with guidance and encouragement, new social norms favoring contact are allowed to emerge.

Previously, researchers have suggested that these necessary conditions may be rarely or inconsistently met by many if not most service-learning practitioners, either because of practical constraints or lack of familiarity with the theoretical assumptions of CT (see Erickson & O'Connor [2000] for a more complete discussion). It will continue to be a severe impediment to the effective development of service-learning unless these concerns are addressed.

EGO DEVELOPMENT THEORY HELPS TO EXPLAIN WHY ATTITUDE CHANGE IS SO DIFFICULT

Given the challenges predicted by CT, we must look further to understand why attitude change is so difficult and why service-learning might be unlikely to find the conditions of CT necessary to engage long-term attitude change.

One theory that explains this difficulty is that of the "Totalitarian Ego." The Totalitarian Ego is a theory of the self (or ego—i.e., the "totality of the answers to the question, 'Who am I?'" Shaver, 1985, p. 242) in which the inherent tendency of individuals to preserve their current knowledge organizations is likened to the characteristics of totalitarian political systems (Greenwald, 1980). Greenwald uses the metaphor of totalitarian information control strategies to highlight the nature of the self and intractability of preexisting ego formulations.

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Greenwald's theory proposes that the self is "characterized by cognitive biases strikingly analogous to totalitarian information-control strategies" (1980, p. 603). These "totalitarian-ego biases" function to maintain knowledge of self and others in current cognitive schemes. Individuals distort information about self and others in predictable ways. Greenwald highlights three major factors (which he calls "cognitive biases") in this process: (a) egocentricity (self as the focus of knowledge); (b) benefactance (perception of responsibility for desired, but not undesired, outcomes); and (c) cognitive conservatism (resistance to cognitive change) (1980, p. 603). Together, these three biases or routines form the foundation of the Totalitarian Ego. These habituated information control strategies preserve our sense of who we are and how we fit with others. They also help us to identify our standing in the many different social situations in which we find ourselves. The Totalitarian Ego is not a bad thing; it is a part of normal mental health and is crucial to the support of our sense of who we are in a complex social environment.

While these findings are important, they serve only to highlight the inherent difficulty of attitude change and the cumulative nature of CT: Just having one or two of the five necessary elements is not enough. At least these five elements (and maybe more) are necessary to achieve attitude change. Interactions possessing fewer elements are most likely ineffective, maybe even counterproductive, as Kendall and Associates (1990) suggest.

CONCLUSIONS ABOUT PERSONAL AND SOCIAL OUTCOMES

Contact theory and the notion of the Totalitarian Ego help to highlight the complex nature of attitude change. Changing prejudice or other deeply held beliefs is a very difficult enterprise that is linked to factors necessary to our recognition and maintenance of our sense of self. Changing prejudice involves no less than a change in a person's recognition and organization of his or her ego.

Taken together, we get a more complete picture of the challenges facing those who would engage in service-learning as an attitude change pedagogy. Contact theory proposes a set of minimum conditions in which attitude change may occur. Fulfilling fewer than the minimum conditions may actually increase prejudice as individuals engage in more and more frequent ego-defensive strategies (the cognitive equivalent of digging in one's heels). Making sure that all five conditions are present raises the

probability that the inherent defensiveness of the self might be eased and authentic attitude change will take place.

ACHIEVEMENT OUTCOMES AND SERVICE-LEARNING

A major rationale for the use of service-learning as a pedagogical technique is that it facilitates the learning and retention of the academic content of instruction. Service-learning is believed to contribute to academic achievement both directly and through providing a real-world context for the content of academic instruction (see Eyler & Giles [1999] for a comprehensive review of this literature). Instructors who use service-learning report that their students develop a better overall understanding of the content being taught. Controversy exists in educational psychology theory and research, however, about the nature of instructional processes that best promote the learning of academic content (e.g., Anderson, Reder, & Simon, 1996; Greeno, 1997). This section examines psychological theory as it applies to service-learning as a pedagogical technique used to promote the learning of academic content. This analysis is then used to suggest the conditions that are required for effective service-learning in this area.

THE ROLE OF SERVICE-LEARNING IN THE ACQUISITION OF ACADEMIC KNOWLEDGE

The issue of whether or not service-learning results in the learning of academic content arises in the context of the standards movement in contemporary American education. Perceived achievement problems of school students has resulted in a demand for the development of content standards for students whose attainment can be reliably and objectively measured. The development of these standards and assessments has resulted in controversy over the best pedagogical techniques to promote student attainment. From a logical perspective, direct instruction focused on content objectives has obvious appeal. Thus, it becomes incumbent on proponents of less apparently focused pedagogy, such as service-learning, to justify the efficacy of that pedagogy in terms of academic outcomes.

The controversy arises because education in both P-12 and higher education settings has been organized around the academic disciplines. These disciplines are conceived of as organized systems of well defined but abstract concepts. Curriculum and pedagogy are structured to teach students these concepts and their organization at this abstract level. Students

demonstrate that they have learned the discipline when they can demonstrate that they know the concepts and the conceptual structure and can use this knowledge to solve problems that involve understanding the interrelationships of the concepts. Assessment of this learning is frequently in the form of standardized or objective tests of knowledge of these concepts or the development of solutions to problems posed that specifically require knowledge of the structural characteristics of the discipline.

Because they take place in real-world settings, service-learning projects are often not clearly related to a specific curriculum, except in a very broad way. They tend to be complex and are often interdisciplinary in nature. The nature of a real-world context is that the experience will be somewhat unpredictable, and the academic concepts being taught may not occur in the logical order expected in highly controlled, discipline-specific instruction. Thus, critics tend to regard experience-based instruction as inefficient (Anderson et al., 1996). An additional inefficiency is students' tendencies to see the service-learning from multiple perspectives that complicate the instructor's task of communicating the unambiguous organization of disciplinary content.

Those who focus on strict and specific academic standards might argue that much of what is learned in service-learning projects is "incidental." While almost everyone would agree that students learn something from service-learning activities, what is learned in terms of conceptual structures of academic disciplines is harder to specify. It is also the case that students probably learn content that is unrelated to the specific academic content of the course they are taking. Assessment techniques such as portfolios and rubrics can be used to document this learning, but they do not necessarily address this problem. If rubrics are constructed related to academic curriculum objectives, they will not assess what is learned outside those specific objectives. In doing so, they mimic standardized or objective assessments and consequently may be too specific to assess the breadth or specifics of what the student has learned. On the other hand, used qualitatively to assess what students actually learn, they may not speak to specific content objectives of the academic curriculum.

The problems are, then, to determine what students actually learn from service-learning and whether service-learning does improve students' understanding of the academic curriculum. These two distinct questions need to be discussed separately.

THE THEORETICAL BASIS FOR SERVICE-LEARNING

Two broad schools of psychological theory have arisen to explain how knowledge is gained. The orientations of these schools are reflected in the debate about the value of experiential learning relative to direct instruction in the conceptual structure of disciplines as processes for teaching academic content. One school examines the acquisition of knowledge and knowledge structures from a developmental point of view. This approach examines the evolution of concepts and conceptual structures as they change over time. This approach has a foundation in the work of Dewey in America and of Piaget and Vygotsky in Europe. The other examines specifically the acquisition of expert knowledge within specific areas and has its foundation in modern cognitive psychology (e.g., Anderson, 1995).

The developmental point of view. The developmental tradition in theorizing about human cognitive development and environments that promote the development of abstract thinking has implications for effective educational environments that are clearly consistent with recognized characteristics of good practice in service-learning. The most developed theory in this area has arisen out of modern extensions of the Vygotskian tradition. Vygotsky (1987) argued that children gain new knowledge through engaging in activities that are just beyond their current level of competence, within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). They construct this new knowledge through scaffolding provided by adults or more competent peers. Rogoff (1990) uses the concept of "guided participation" and asserts that this guided participation in culturally valued activities is essential for the construction of knowledge.

The role of adults or more competent peers in the construction of knowledge is more than simple promotion of cognitive development through guided participation. This guided participation must occur in the solution of problems arising in the course of socially shared and culturally meaningful activities. Through developing solutions to these problems, children gain a sense of the importance and relevance of their activity to the social structure of which they are a part. Learning is initially interpsychological and occurs through social interaction in these problem-solving activities. Only later does it become independently functioning within the individual (Leontiev, 1981).

The motivation of the individual is also important in the acquisition of knowledge. Vygotsky (1987) held that thought originated in the motiva-

tions of the individual, including affective and volitional tendencies. These motivational tendencies also are interpsychological, at least in part, and develop in the context of shared and collaborative action.

More recently, Lave and her colleagues (e.g., Lave & Wenger, 1991) have examined what they call "situated learning." Situated learning is the learning that occurs as individuals are acculturated into a community. They introduce the concept of legitimate peripheral participation as the vehicle for such learning. This concept refers to the process in which newcomers to the community learn from those who are already "expert" in the knowledge of the community through participation activities important to the community by apprenticing with the experts who provide guided participation in these activities.

This theoretical approach suggests characteristics of educational environments that should prove effective in producing learning in students:

1. Teachers and students should be engaged in problem-solving activities in which they share interest and commitment.
2. Activities should involve problems of importance to the culture of which the participants are a part.
3. Activities should provide opportunities for adults to provide scaffolding through guided participation in the solution of the problems taken on by the group.

These precepts of good service-learning practice are important (National and Community Service Act of 1990). Service-learning can be expected to be less effective in producing learning in situations in which these conditions are not met.

This theoretical tradition does not deal specifically with the acquisition of academic or discipline-oriented content. As a matter of fact, Lave and Wenger (1991), who introduced the concept of situated learning, explicitly avoid the issue of how this type of learning relates to schooling. The learning about which they are talking occurs in the natural context of the community in the work of the community, and there is no discussion of the acquisition of specific concepts in the situated learning paradigm.

The point of view of cognitive psychology. Research in cognitive psychology does deal specifically with the acquisition of academic content. A rich literature exists in a variety of disciplines about processes involved in moving from naive to expert knowledge systems (e.g., Anderson, 1995;

Ericsson, 1996). Space limitations do not allow a thorough examination of this literature, but the focus is on how students use text and structured classroom experiences to gain the knowledge structures of the discipline organized in a manner consistent with that of experts. Emphasis is on processes of memory, frequently learning from text and from structured experimentation, problem solving, reflection on errors, and so on. These experiences are structured by the instructor in light of the conceptual organization of the discipline to provide the student with interactions with the content that correct erroneous conceptions and build “correct” ones.

It is this latter aspect of cognitive psychology that links to service-learning practice. An important process in the acquisition of disciplinary knowledge from the cognitive psychology perspective is the conceptual organization of the discipline. The instructor has that knowledge and can provide students with the conceptual structures for understanding the service-learning activities in light of those structures, suggesting two requirements for service-learning pedagogy to be effective in the learning of academic content:

1. The projects and associated classroom activities need to be clearly connected to the academic content through the utilization of concepts and structure of the discipline in the discussion and interpretation of the service-learning experience; and
2. Specific opportunity for reflection on the relationships among the concepts of the discipline and the real-world experience need to be provided.

These two approaches to how knowledge develops—the developmental tradition and modern cognitive psychology—are generally regarded as mutually exclusive and contradictory. Perhaps a more productive approach to addressing this issue is to examine the possible relationships between what is learned in situated learning contexts and what is learned in more academic contexts. Clearly, the organization of knowledge into the academic domains we call the disciplines has been productive. That productivity depends, however, on an understanding of how the concepts and conceptual structures of disciplines work in the complex world outside the academy. Cognitive developmental theories (including those of both Piaget and Vygotsky) argue that learning in practical and social contexts both precedes and underlies the conceptual schemes taught in abstract curricula. These conceptual structures are seen as abstracted from these contexts.

Once these structures are constructed from this process, however, they inform further interactions with the real world. That is, these two sources of knowledge inform each other. If this is the case, service-learning should either assist students in understanding the abstract curricula by providing concrete meaning for the abstract concepts, or the abstract curriculum should inform the service-learning activity, depending on the developmental status of the knowledge of the student. In either case, service-learning should enhance the academic learning of the student that should be measurable on typical objective assessment instruments used to assess knowledge in academic curricula. At the same time, it should improve the ability to solve real-world problems using the academic content. The implication of this complementarity is that service-learning pedagogy that meets the conditions of both theoretical camps should always have better achievement results than instruction that meets the criteria of only one, even when assessed by traditional objective methods.

The problem with exclusive use of standardized and objective assessments of student outcomes is that such assessment does not capture the richness of what students actually learn in service-learning activities. Wolfson and Willinsky (1998) make explicit note of the concordance of service-learning practice with situated learning and argue that assessment techniques to determine what students learn needs to be dynamic, tailored to the specific service-learning activity, integrated into the activity, and part of the feedback process into the activity itself. For example, students' portfolios that present ongoing work and reflect not only what they are learning but also the problems they are encountering and solving can be used in this way. Shumer (1997) also argues for qualitative approaches to assessing what is gained from service-learning for these and other reasons.

CONDITIONS FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE-LEARNING IN ACADEMIC CONTENT AREAS

Based on the theoretical analyses above, five characteristics of service-learning activities should prove effective in producing academic learning in students:

1. Teachers, students, and community members should be engaged in problem-solving activities in which they share interest and commitment.

2. Activities should involve problems of importance to the culture of which the participants are a part.
3. Activities should provide opportunities for adults to provide scaffolding through guided participation in the solution of the problems taken on by the group.
4. Concepts of the academic discipline should be clearly organized to relate to the experience of the students engaged in service-learning.
5. Reflection on the organization and meaning of the academic content in the context of the service-learning experience with feedback from the instructor and opportunity to identify and correct misapplications, misconceptions, and so on is essential.

To the extent that any of these five conditions are not met, service-learning activities are expected to be less effective in producing good learning of academic content.

A service-learning experience that embodies these characteristics took place in a midwestern middle school. An interdisciplinary group of teachers brainstormed with their students about problems/issues in their community. Students and teachers chose the problem(s) they wanted to work on. Adults in the community were recruited to assist the groups of students as they researched the issue(s) they were working on. In addition, students from the teacher education program at a local college assisted the groups with their work. The groups researched the history of the issue, developed possible alternative courses of action, researched the pros and cons of these courses of action, and developed a position paper and action plan for addressing the issue. The students presented the results of their inquiry to relevant civic groups/agencies. In conjunction with these agencies, they participated in the work of the eventual action plan that was developed. In the classroom, students studied relevant science content, historical data, and mathematical procedures as they were needed to identify the problems, develop solutions, and evaluate the effectiveness of their intervention.

ACHIEVEMENT EVIDENCE FOR SERVICE-LEARNING

In general, results of published research relating to the effectiveness of service-learning in learning academic content are consistent with the notion, developed above, that students engaged in service-learning activ-

ities should improve academic knowledge relative to students in the same content but not so involved. Relatively little data about relative performance on standardized objective assessments of students engaged in service-learning and students not so engaged appear to exist (e.g., Root, 1997). A claim for the efficacy of service-learning on standardized or objective measures can only be justified if there is an experimental comparison. Of the studies that do exist, only one was found that compared groups constructed by random selection who participated in service-learning with those that did not on standardized test scores. Santmire, Giraud, and Grosskopf (1999) found that seventh-grade students randomly assigned to be engaged in a yearlong series of service-learning activities gained more on the Metropolitan Achievement Test Total Battery than did the other seventh graders at the same school who did not engage in service-learning. This effect was independent of the initial scores of the students. That is, the effect was the same for students at the high end of the achievement distribution as for students at the low end.

Most studies use GPA as the dependent academic measure. Markus, Howard, and King (1993) conducted an experimental study with assumed random selection in which political science students engaged in service-learning as part of their course received higher grades than control students who did not. Astin and his colleagues (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000) used statistical controls to compare the GPAs of students who participated in service-learning with those who did not. They found positive effects on GPA, writing skills, and critical thinking in the service-learning students. This study did not find significant effects on graduate and professional school admissions tests.

Uncontrolled studies also show positive results. One study found that that GPA improved in a high-risk population (Shumer, 1994) and another in students with disabilities (Brill, 1994). Another found no overall effect on GPA (Melchior & Orr, 1995). A group of studies find better specific content knowledge of project-related content in students participating in service-learning when compared with students who did not participate (Dewsbury-White, 1993; Hamilton & Zeldin, 1987; Silcox, 1993). Waterman (1993) found that participants in a Literacy Corps project did not do better than students in regular English classes on a test of reading comprehension; however, he did not look at gains in comprehension skills.

CONCLUSION ABOUT ACHIEVEMENT OUTCOMES

Service-learning pedagogy must be conducted in a manner consistent with certain minimal conditions; moreover, these conditions, if followed, will reliably lead to more favorable outcomes in both the attitudinal and cognitive domains. Psychological theories of development, cognition, and attitude change suggest service-learning, designed and implemented to meet these theoretically relevant conditions, should be expected to improve the attainment of academic content objectives over instruction that does not involve a service-learning component. This improved performance should be reflected on standardized assessment instruments designed for specifically academic purposes, and there is some evidence that this is the case. Academic achievement in problem solving and critical thinking, however, should also be improved relative to pedagogical techniques that do not involve an experiential learning component. This means that it is important to include such measures in assessing effects of service-learning.

These results are expected to be diminished to the extent that the theoretically derived conditions of effective service-learning are not met. One important component of evaluative studies of service-learning should be an assessment of the extent to which these conditions are met in the service-learning activities being evaluated. Such an assessment would allow a more critical assessment of the effects of service-learning. For example, Astin and his colleagues (2000) found that students' motivation for the service-learning was an important mediator of the gains found from participation in service-learning.

Service-learning projects that do not meet the criteria for authentic service-learning will not allow for adequate tests that service-learning is effective in promoting academic learning or that the theoretical claims of situated learning are empirically verifiable. Further analysis of the specific theoretical positions and implications for implementing service-learning could be made to develop more detailed conditions that may be expected to affect learning outcomes but would take more space than available here.

Service-learning is a real-world situated learning experience that can be expected to enhance knowledge and change attitudes so long as it is conducted in the context of an academic discipline and in a manner that applies the powerful social and cognitive psychological theories noted here.

Future research into these questions should both validate the use of service-learning as a pedagogical technique and enhance our understanding of the relations between learning in academic contexts and situated learning.

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INSTITUTIONALIZING SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION: THE PERSPECTIVE FROM FEMINIST PHASE THEORY

■ KELLY WARD AND DEBRA NITSCHKE-SHAW

This chapter presents information relating to the stages of integrating service-learning into teacher education from a curricular perspective. The intent of this perspective is to provide insight on how organizations change and ideas for teacher education programs at different phases of development to move toward fuller integration. We employ here curriculum phase theory, in particular feminist phase theory, to provide a conceptual lens to examine how teacher education programs integrate and institutionalize service-learning.

Why use feminist phase theory to look at service-learning? The effort to incorporate women into mainstream curriculum has been long and often arduous. Historically, the experience of women, in terms of both experience and knowledge generated from that experience, has not been incorporated into traditional knowledge. The knowledge created by and about women has been absent from the creation of "formalized knowledge" (Andersen, 1987). With regard to curriculum, it translates to a historical absence of women in what college students learn and what faculty teach. Coming to know about women and including this knowledge in curriculum in higher education have been a gradual process and certainly not one that is complete. The incorporation of women's knowledge, as feminist phase theory suggests, is not simply a matter of adding women but instead calls for rethinking what we know about women and ways to incorporate this knowledge into the curriculum.

Curricular transformation is a vast undertaking that does not refer to changes in one class or program. It refers to comprehensive change. This process in many ways parallels the integration of service-learning methodology in teacher education. Historically, teacher educators have focused on transferring knowledge through classroom experience, observation,

and student teaching. In this approach, standards and testing for teacher certification are the central focus of the curriculum. Transfer theories of teaching and learning are rooted in teachers' knowledge, with teachers imparting knowledge to students through traditional teaching methods such as lectures and readings, in which students are passive learners (Fox, cited in Duffy & Jones, 1995).

In addition to the traditional teaching methods of lectures and readings, student teaching, typically the penultimate experience for preservice teachers, is an experiential approach to education and one that is greatly valued by students. In most programs, however, the experience comes too late in the curriculum for students to be able to incorporate learning and reflection into the teacher education process (Britzman, 1991). To take full advantage of student teaching, students need frequent interaction with communities and schools. While some programs and states require extensive pre-student teaching placements in schools, many do not and thus rely on student teaching as the primary means to expose students to the realities of the classroom.

The comprehensive integration of service-learning in teacher education requires rethinking what students need to know and how students are engaged in learning. Service-learning "is a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and development. Reflection and reciprocity are key concepts of service-learning" (Jacoby, 1996, p. 5). Central to this definition is the focus on community and reflection. Unlike other forms of experiential learning, service-learning is intrinsically tied to both academic and community needs.

The integration of service-learning, like the integration of women's studies, requires new ways of thinking about knowing and thus our use of feminist phase theory. The use of phase theory to explain the integration of service-learning in teacher education suggests the following scenario. First, service-learning is viewed either as something that is already being done (e.g., student teachers meet community needs) or as something that does not belong in the teacher education curriculum. At this juncture, service-learning is not viewed by faculty and administrators in teacher education as something that has a place or purpose in the mainstream curriculum. Nevertheless, a few people start to use service-learning

ing, it may be added to an existing course or two, and a few faculty employ it to teach preservice teachers. In time, faculty incorporate service-learning into a more centralized place in the curriculum and perhaps require it in a course or two. Ultimately, service-learning is at the core of teacher education, where it is used as a means to rethink what students learn. This simplified description is not unlike what was encountered by those involved in the incorporation of women's studies into the curriculum. The process is ongoing for both service-learning and women's studies, and there are identifiable stages that one goes through in the process.

Feminist phase theory emerged from lessons learned by feminist scholars involved in theorizing about the integration of women into the curriculum (McIntosh, 1983; Schuster & Van Dyne, 1985; Tetreault, 1985). We use it here as a theoretical lens to examine how teacher educators are incorporating service-learning into their programs.

THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF SERVICE-LEARNING: STAGES OF INTEGRATION

Change is a journey, and the integration of service-learning into the teacher preparation program is a change that moves educators away from the traditional approach to education. What is needed to guide this journey is a responsive and evolutionary planning process. Change is a process rich with problems; it challenges existing interests and routines, heightens uncertainty, and increases complexity.

Institutionalizing service-learning into the teacher preparation program involves a complex change process, one that requires an equally involved guide or outline. Phase theory, offering guideposts for change, is a useful tool for anticipating possible detours and potential milestones. As a theory that has charted the women's studies project to a more centralized place in the core curriculum, phase theory emphasizes the process orientation of change, is evaluative, and is sensitive to points of resistance. Phase theory "provides a systematic map gauging where one has been, where one is, and where one might be going" (Tetreault, 1985, p. 663). Schuster and Van Dyne (1985) found that an "intellectual overview can be a key strategy to help those participating in the change process to identify sources of resistance in others and in themselves" (p. 14).

Service-learning as a young, burgeoning field stands to gain from such direction. What we offer here is an adaptation of how the integration of

service-learning might evolve using Schuster and Van Dyne's (1985) stages of integration. Adapted to service-learning, these stages are (a) invisible service-learning, (b) search for service-learning, (c) service-learning as an inferior pedagogy, (d) service-learning on its own terms, (e) service-learning as a challenge to traditional education, and (f) the transformed curriculum. For each stage, we provide a description of the teacher education program typically found at that stage and a description of program characteristics to describe the degree of integration of service-learning.

STAGE ONE: INVISIBLE SERVICE-LEARNING

Some teacher education programs simply reproduce the traditional order of the faculty's own undergraduate education. Faculty teach others the way they were taught (and the way their teachers were taught) rather than incorporate new methodologies that have proven successful and reflect current research. Staying with what one is comfortable with is often easier than dealing with change, even if the change, as in the case of service-learning, has the potential to lead to success for students, teachers, and community agencies.

Questions that Stage One program faculty members pose are clustered around whether service can support meeting curriculum standards. Teacher education programs have specific standards they must meet to adhere to accreditation guidelines, and concern about the appropriate use of service-learning coalesces around its appropriate place in the preparation of teachers. If service-learning is to be used as a methodology or taught as a pedagogy, how will it support meeting standards? How can the faculty member assess whether standards have been met? Further, in light of ever increasing demands on time, how can faculty find time to plan and prepare for service-learning? How can service-learning be added to an already full curriculum?

Teacher education students in Stage One programs are required to perform at minimum competency levels to obtain certification. Teacher preparation programs are often judged on their degree of effectiveness by how well their preservice teachers do on these standardized assessments. Unquestionably, having the essential knowledge to pass these assessment measures is important. But many teacher educators see preservice teachers as vessels needing to be filled with knowledge and teacher education faculty as the primary vehicles for transmitting this knowledge.

It is unfortunate that preservice teachers and teacher education faculty may unwittingly support the perpetuation of a teacher-directed, passive learning model. When service-learning is not available as a methodology, much less taught as a pedagogy, preservice teachers may erroneously assume that teacher-directed styles of teaching are the only forms of teaching that enable students to be successful learners.

At this stage, the role of service-learning as an active and community-oriented pedagogy in teacher preparation is overlooked and the merits of service-learning are not acknowledged.

In sum, the characteristics of teacher education at Stage One are as follows:

- Teacher education programs center curriculum around classrooms and laboratories.
- Experiences in schools are limited to observation and student teaching.
- Students are encouraged to gain experience working with the age group they aspire to work with once teachers but do so independent of curriculum.
- Faculty and administrators view student teaching and classroom observations (e.g., practica) as service-learning, because these experiences involve students in schools.
- Faculty and students at this stage have an unclear definition of service-learning, as they often equate it with community service or just "being in the classroom."
- Faculty are preoccupied with concerns about time relative to the planning and integration of service-learning.

STAGE TWO: SEARCH FOR SERVICE-LEARNING

Committed faculty who see the need to integrate service-learning into their programs soon become aware of the needs of their students as learners and future teachers. Concern for teacher preparation is still motivated by certification and standards, but faculty start to see the possibility for teaching strategies such as service-learning that can simultaneously prepare preservice teachers for the realities of their future as teachers and help them to pass tests for certification. At this stage, service-learning is acknowledged as a possible way of involving students in active learning. Faculty may look to other teacher preparation programs that have successfully integrated service-learning into their teacher preparation program for guidance. Faculty

may also look to area schools for teachers who successfully use active teaching and learning models (i.e., service-learning).

At the Stage Two program level, a search for exemplary models, both in the classroom and at the programmatic level, prompts the following questions: What active learning strategies are available for teacher education programs? How are teacher education programs using service-learning? Are there fellow faculty on campus or P-12 teachers in area schools using service-learning and other active teaching strategies? Teacher education faculty who do not find exemplars use the knowledge they have about active teaching and learning, which may appear as adding experiential activities to class schedules and/or encouraging extracurricular involvement in schools as a way to extend students' experiences beyond the college campus. At this juncture, Stage Two program faculty start to see the myriad of possibilities for service-learning and other experiential approaches. Teacher education faculty who find few exemplars (in higher education or local schools), however, may resort to those processes and strategies that are comfortable to them even if they know that more active forms of learning have the potential to lead to more meaningful, long-term learning. Those who do find helpful exemplars soon after they express an initial interest in service-learning may still search for additional models to verify their belief that service-learning is an effective pedagogy and move more quickly through Stage Two to Stage Three.

At the Stage Two program level, an interesting phenomenon is likely to occur. Faculty from higher education may be reluctant to use a learning strategy like service-learning, for there are few partner teachers from P-12 schools familiar with service-learning as a way of teaching and learning. The question arises about where the innovation starts. Some teacher education faculty believe that preparation in service-learning should occur only at the inservice level because preservice teachers are too overwhelmed to make successful use of this pedagogy even if they have experienced it in their preservice preparation. Others see service-learning as yet another pedagogy to which they are exposing their preservice teachers, thus providing them with a broader array of teaching strategies from which to choose to meet the needs of all learners in diverse learning situations.

In some cases, P-12 teachers who monitor student teachers are simply unaware of service-learning as a pedagogy and as a result are ineffective service-learning mentors to preservice teachers. In many cases, the P-12

teacher does not identify needs that the preservice teachers can help to fill. As a result, there are little or no purposeful connections made by the preservice teacher between academic course content and the work in the classroom. It may be because the P-12 teacher has not been exposed to service-learning pedagogy; there may have been no training for the P-12 teacher in the roles he/she will be assuming to support the linking of service and academic content.

In sum, the characteristics of teacher education at Stage Two are as follows:

- There is awareness of alternatives to traditional ways of teaching and learning in teacher education programs.
- There is questioning of the legitimacy of trying new things but also the awareness that old ways of teaching and learning are not meeting students' needs.
- There is conflict among faculty about the best ways to prepare teachers and ways to integrate service-learning into the curriculum.
- The presence of community support for service-learning is limited. There are few P-12 teachers, school personnel, or community members familiar with service-learning, and thus preservice teachers have limited opportunities to be mentored by P-12 teachers or others versed in the pedagogy of service-learning.
- Community outreach is more oriented toward volunteerism than service-learning, as there are no links between service in the community and course objectives.
- There is concern over how to assess involvement in service-learning and how it helps preservice teachers meet state and national standards.
- There are limited resources and/or reward systems available to faculty in higher education who want to integrate service-learning into their curricular offerings.
- The essential elements of effective service-learning are not clearly understood, and, as a result, structuring meaningful service-learning initiatives is a frustrating task for teacher educators.

STAGE THREE: SERVICE-LEARNING AS AN INFERIOR PEDAGOGY

The Stage Three program level is characterized by transition from old notions of teaching and learning to awareness of new possibilities for preparing teachers in more progressive ways. Rather than giving up

because of initially disappointing results, faculty must begin to redefine their intellectual responsibility as teachers of future educators. They broaden their inquiry about effective teaching and the preparation of qualified teachers. Anxiety, difficulties, and uncertainty are intrinsic to successful change.

At the Stage Three program level, faculty and students alike report frustration with the current education system. They see before them the perpetuation of teacher-directed classrooms where students have little to no input. Most primary and secondary teachers pursued teaching as a career because they wanted others to be excited about learning. They vowed to teach differently from the way they were taught. But when faced with the mounting demands of national, state, and local requirements, innovative approaches to teaching get left behind. Preservice teachers and their P-12 mentors may feel unsupported by administrators or other formal leaders in their efforts to integrate or use service-learning as a methodology.

At the Stage Three program level, teacher preparation faculty, seeing the downward spiral caused by tensions between the reality of contemporary classrooms and the possibilities of active learning, turn to the literature and the work of theorists to support their service-learning efforts and become more knowledgeable about the essential elements of effective service-learning. They try to help their preservice teachers, P-12 teachers, and community partners to see the benefits of service-learning for all three. The development of an engaged campus, one that supports colleges and universities working collaboratively with partners to create civic responsibility in its members, becomes their mission (Hollander, 1998). The teacher preparation faculty begin to see service-learning as a means of not only helping students to learn important academic concepts but also instilling civic responsibility and developing desirable personal attitudes such as compassion and empathy.

Teacher preparation faculty realize that for service-learning to be successfully integrated into the teacher preparation curriculum and sustained institutionally, partnerships with P-12 schools, agencies, and programs must be developed, particularly partnerships with schools and agencies that have experience with service-learning. They see partnerships as the foundation of meaningful service-learning experiences for students. In their efforts to create meaningful partnerships, they seek out a P-12 teacher or community partner whom they believe holds similar beliefs about learning. As

partners, they engage in intellectual discourse about service-learning and work collaboratively to create effective service-learning initiatives. In many cases, the first service-learning initiative is designed more as an add-on to a course rather than woven into the fabric of the course. In Stage Three, faculty are more open to the potential that service-learning has to enliven learning and to help students connect theory to practice, but they are still concerned about relinquishing teacher-centered approaches and moving into an approach to teaching that is unfamiliar and unknown.

In sum, the characteristics of teacher education at Stage Three are as follows:

- Faculty are in conversation about the best ways to prepare future teachers.
- Faculty discuss and acknowledge that the diversity and complexity of contemporary P-12 schools call for revising teacher education.
- Service-learning is acknowledged as a way to transform teacher preparation.
- Faculty engage in research to come to a more in-depth understanding of service-learning.
- Individual faculty establish partnerships with one or two individuals who have similar beliefs in learning and work collaboratively to create service-learning initiatives.
- Individual faculty try service-learning by adding it to part of their course and requiring short-term community projects.

STAGE FOUR: SERVICE-LEARNING ON ITS OWN TERMS

At Stage Four, faculty see the merits of service-learning on its own terms. That is, faculty move from seeing service-learning as something that someone else does or as something that is merely added to an otherwise traditional approach to teacher education. Although problems, challenges, and barriers to fully integrating service-learning into the teacher preparation program still exist, the emphasis is no longer on the problems associated with service-learning but on the ways service-learning can work and on ways to apply it.

This stage is characterized by a climate that encourages taking risks. Faculty try a variety of ways of integrating service-learning into their curricula to establish what works best for them. Faculty not only use service-learning as a teaching strategy but also engage their students in under-

standing and using service-learning as a pedagogy. At this stage, faculty see the potential range and diversity of experience for service-learners.

The power that meeting authentic community needs can have on an individual surfaces as faculty engage in integrating service-learning into the teacher education program. Through the use of planned, purposeful reflection, the powerful stories of service-learners are revealed. These stories are essential ingredients in the successful transformation of traditional teacher preparation courses. Faculty who use service-learning at this stage have course goals carefully linked to identified community needs. At this stage, faculty, preservice teachers, and service-learning mentors begin to experience the success of integrating service-learning into the curriculum, the effect it has on preservice teachers, and the possibilities for additional applications.

Being involved in service-learning initiatives opens new fields of inquiry and new areas for research, publication, and professional renewal. New questions emerge: What impact can teaching service-learning as a pedagogy to preservice teachers have on them as future teachers and their ability to use service-learning as a pedagogy in their classrooms? In what ways can interactions with schools support the development of service-learning mentors and mentees? How can faculty, preservice teachers, and community agencies work and learn collaboratively?

Preservice teachers begin to see service-learning as a way to develop their own knowledge while providing a powerful learning tool for their students. Faculty become more aware of current teaching practices and the impact they have on learners and are less removed from the practice of teaching. Faculty start to see the expansive potential service-learning has to teach content and methods and as a tool they can use to teach content knowledge and methods.

In sum, characteristics of teacher education at Stage Four are as follows:

- A climate of supportive risk taking is revealed.
- Service-learning is viewed as a link between local schools and higher education.
- Service-learning is integrated into conversations across the curriculum and moves beyond an add-on.
- Schools and community agencies are invited to partner and to collaborate with higher education in the preparation of teachers.
- Service-learning is taught as a subject (e.g., a method in methods classes) and used as a practice (e.g., students engage in service-learning).

- Powerful stories of service-learners help with the transformation of traditional courses.

STAGE FIVE: SERVICE-LEARNING AS A CHALLENGE TO TRADITIONAL EDUCATION

The accumulation of data gathered from the voices of service-learners and the insider's perspective in Stage Four environments leads individuals to question traditional education in profound ways. How effective are traditional approaches to teaching? How can service-learning be used to help pre-service teachers acquire content knowledge in fields such as science, math, social studies, and English? Unfortunately, many times people reject complex innovations before they are in a sound position to make a judgment.

Stage Five program faculty who have spent time integrating service-learning into their programs, who read extensively in the scholarship of service-learning, and who enjoy support by their institutions are the most likely to work toward the most thorough integration. Faculty at this juncture begin to question how what they learned by studying service-learning impacts the field of teaching and the preparation of teachers as well as professional development opportunities for in-service teachers. The relevance of professional development, where preservice, inservice, and teacher education faculty learn together, becomes obvious. New policies and procedures are introduced that result in systemic change.

Stage Five involves the loss of old certainties. Only through immersion in service-learning can teacher education faculty come up with creative solutions to the problems and barriers they are likely to encounter as they integrate service-learning. Problems are natural, expected phenomena, and success can result if problems are seen as opportunities for change. The gains are the recovery of theories that support service-learning and the discovery of how to use service-learning effectively as a pedagogy to help in the preparation of new teachers.

In sum, the characteristics of teacher education at Stage Five are as follows:

- Service-learning expands from a few maverick teachers to the whole faculty.
- Service-learning extends to yet more classes.
- Faculty see the possibility for service-learning to lead to a scholarship of teaching, research, and service.
- New policies and procedures emerge that allow service-learning to be sustained, leading to systemic change.

STAGE SIX: THE TRANSFORMED CURRICULUM

Transformed teacher education programs have administrators and faculty members who make a commitment to service-learning and who allocate resources for its support. A shared vision among faculty in a teacher preparation program as to where a program is going brings more resources to bear on problems, keeps the energy for transformation focused, works actively in pursuit of problems, and improves accountability. Service-learning is successfully integrated into the teacher preparation curriculum as well as other programs at the college. Changes made to programs are sustained, service-learning is aligned with the mission of the institution, and individual disciplines employ it. Including service-learning in the institution's mission helps drive the allocation of resources—funds, time, support, recognition, faculty evaluation, promotion, and tenure. This type of collaboration among different levels of the institution and between different groups of faculty helps advance the systemic integration of service-learning. Formal leaders at each institution sanction service-learning initiatives and provide support for those initiatives so that service-learning is integrated into the curriculum and sustained.

A transformed curriculum would:

- Be self-conscious about service-learning as a methodology, no matter what is on the syllabus;
- Present changes to content in a different context and be aware that meaningful knowledge is constructed by the learner;
- Develop an interdisciplinary perspective on the development of interrelationships of all the main components of the system simultaneously (curriculum, training, policies, support, partnership development, community involvement, and so on);
- Test service-learning as a paradigm rather than merely adding it to the methodologies available;
- Make students' experience and learning process part of the goals of the course; and
- Promote awareness of the beliefs and values inherent in the culture of systems that are being transformed.

In sum, the characteristics of teacher education at Stage Six are as follows:

- Service-learning is integrated across the curriculum. Students come to expect service-learning in courses at both the introductory and senior levels.

- Service-learning is recognized as central to the preparation of teachers for contemporary society.
- Faculty and administrators see links between service-learning, democratic education, and lifelong learning.
- Higher education, P-12 schools, and community agencies see themselves as partners in the preparation of future teachers.
- Service-learning is tied to the mission of the unit.

SERVICE-LEARNING AND PHASE THEORY: IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Analyzing development in terms of stages or phases provides direction for those interested in integrating service-learning into teacher education programs. The phases, though not rigidly linear, do tend to be sequential. That is, while faculty do not have to strictly “graduate” from Stage One to move on to Stage Two and so on, there does tend to be development through the stages.

The stages represented in phase theory are developmental in that issues and questions associated with Stage One are more basic than those associated with Stage Six. As programs evolve in their integration of service-learning, the issues associated with integration become more complex. Phase theory offers a guide for comprehensive program change, thus addressing the mundane, at Stage One, and the ideological, at Stage Six.

How then do teacher educators use phase theory to move service-learning from marginal to a core position in the curriculum? As indicated at the outset of this chapter, phase theory is a tool to guide those involved in the curriculum change process. Throughout this chapter, we have provided characteristics of different phases of integration. By locating points of resistance, points of success, and aspirations for change, programs can more easily redirect energy and resources toward the fuller integration of service-learning in teacher education.

Through our experiences with the integration of service-learning into colleges of education, we have seen a progression through these stages precipitated by combinations of institutional support, faculty involvement, and student interest. Faculty are likely to embrace the pedagogy of service-learning only when they can be assured that service-learning meets accreditation standards and the cognitive development of students.

Faculty will engage in service-learning when they see the benefits of service-learning for themselves, for students, and for communities.

Many people view education at all levels as encountering "troubled times." Negative rhetoric at best characterizes much of what we hear about today's youth. We hear about increasing levels of teenage pregnancy, teen suicide, violence in schools, at-risk youth, parental disengagement, and school dropouts. The rhetoric surrounding teachers is not much better. Teachers are undervalued and underpaid.

Service-learning opens higher education and the preparation of teachers to new and more encompassing views of teaching and learning. Phase theory illustrates that while the transforming effects of the integration of service-learning into the curriculum are not always immediate, neither are they inconsequential. The process of transforming the teacher education curriculum through service-learning offers a way to rethink the preparation of teachers.

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SERVICE-LEARNING AND STANDARDS-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

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In the past 15 years, both service-learning and standards-based education have come into prominence. The purpose of this paper is to examine how service-learning can promote the development of beginning and expert teachers' performance, as described in key standards documents. First, we describe the evolution of standards-based teacher education, followed by a brief introduction to the ways service-learning is used by novice and expert teachers. We then connect service-learning principles and practices to standards-based teacher education through an analysis of five core propositions developed by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards.

STANDARDS-BASED TEACHER EDUCATION

The publication of *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century* (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy) in 1986 began a transformation in teacher education that continues to play out in school districts and schools of education across the United States. Initially, an agenda of professionalization guided the work of reformers; *A Nation Prepared* called for "a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, organized with a regional and state membership structure, to establish high standards for what teachers need to know and be able to do, and to certify teachers who meet those standards" (1986, p. 55). The professionalization focus gradually merged with an agenda focused on the improvement of teaching and learning, so that the National Board today sees itself as not only recognizing accomplished teachers but also contributing to the improvement of teaching practice through the articulation of its standards and the development of an assessment process based on those standards. Thus far, the National Board has developed standards in 16 certificate areas and more than 4,800 teachers have achieved national board certification.

As the National Board began its work to define standards for accomplished teaching, interest grew in the development of a set of normative

standards for beginning teacher practice. Early in the labor of the National Board, a consortium of states joined together to share resources being developed for beginning teacher assessment and support and to follow the work being done by Lee Shulman at Stanford University on the prototype assessments for the National Board. The Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC), under the auspices of the Council of Chief State School Officers, published in 1992 a set of model standards for beginning teacher licensure, designed to be compatible with the standards of the National Board. By 1999, INTASC had also developed standards in mathematics, English, language arts, and science. Committees are currently at work on standards for social studies, special education, the arts, and elementary education. INTASC is also working on the development of a series of assessments for licensure, including tests of content knowledge and teaching knowledge intended to precede initial licensure and a portfolio assessment of teaching practice to be given in the first three years of teaching.

The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), which sets standards for teacher education program accreditation, is currently developing new standards that will be similar to those of the National Board and INTASC in their focus on normative standards and performance assessment, in contrast to the more "input focused" approach of the past. For example, NCATE's new Standard I requires demonstration that "candidates preparing to work in schools as teachers or other school personnel know the content of their fields and demonstrate professional and pedagogical knowledge, skills, and dispositions, and apply them so that students learn. The unit's assessments indicate that candidates meet professional, state, and institutional standards." For institutions that are not NCATE accredited or seeking NCATE accreditation, similar requirements are emerging from state program approval processes, as states move to align with INTASC and the National Board.

In 1996, *What Matters Most: Teaching for America's Future*, the report of the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, called attention to the alignment of these three groups concerned with the continuum of teacher professional development. It called for strengthening the continuum through both state policy initiatives and the efforts of higher education institutions and local school districts. An analysis of the continuum of standards reveals key elements that can guide the work of

teacher educators, whether they work with teacher candidates, beginning teachers, or more accomplished teachers. The next section uses the five propositions of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, the core principles of the INTASC standards, and the indicators of NCATE Standard I to examine the relationships between standards in teacher development and service-learning (see Table 1 for a comparison of NBPTS, INTASC, and NCATE Standard I indicators).

The kind of teaching promoted in the INTASC and National Board Standards and expected through a performance-based program approval process, such as the proposed NCATE procedure, is complex and demanding. Just as P-12 educators are facing the dilemma of preparing students who can meet P-12 content standards, so too are teacher education programs confronting the need to ensure that their graduates can meet the teaching standards. Standards-driven teacher education requires that programs review their curriculum and instructional practices to ensure that they are aligned to the standards and provide students with access and opportunity to attain the knowledge, skills, and dispositions reflected in those standards.

Certainly, there is not one right way to prepare teachers to meet the standards. Some pedagogical practices are more consonant with the teaching performances and dispositions embodied in the standards than others, however. We believe that service-learning is one pedagogical strategy that promotes the development of the beginning and expert teacher standards. These propositions, set out below, represent key elements present not only in the National Board's standards for accomplished teachers but also in the INTASC standards for beginning teachers and the NCATE and state standards for teacher education programs. These propositions illuminate how service-learning might be used to meet standards in pre-service teacher preparation.

PROPOSITION 1: TEACHERS ARE COMMITTED TO STUDENTS AND THEIR LEARNING

Across the standards documents, we find the expectation that teachers understand how students learn and develop. They must appreciate the range of interests, needs, levels, cultures, background experiences, and learning styles that children bring to the classroom. They must be able to accommodate this range of differences or needs while holding all students

to high standards. They must design instruction that not only addresses academic needs but also meets social, personal, and civic needs and responsibilities (INTASC Principles 2 and 3; NCATE Standards 1 and 4).

Service-learning experiences can be integrated into courses in a number of ways to address various aspects of the knowledge, skills, and dispositions inherent in this proposition. For example, in child development courses, preservice teachers may work at day-care centers; in special needs courses, they may work with Special Olympics programs. The vignette below provides a description of how service-learning is used in one course on diversity to enhance preservice teachers' knowledge of and commitment to students and their learning.

Education students take Diversity and Schools, which has a service-learning component requiring three hours of work each week in a community center tutorial program teaching English to newly arrived adult immigrants. Students are asked to keep journals about their tutorial work and their perceptions of how cultural background could impact children's behavior and functioning in the classroom, as well as their families' relationship with administrators and teachers. In the college classroom, the instructor engages these potential teachers in discussions that address course content about changing school populations, cultural differences, and working with families. At the end of the semester, students develop presentations that highlight their work in the center, and they share how they might approach their teaching and work with families and the students in a classroom differently as a result of their experience at the center.

Through such service-learning experiences, the preservice teachers come to a deeper understanding of the diversity of their students and their families (Swick et al., 1998; Wade, 1998) and become more aware of their own biases (Root, 1997).

Teacher education faculty also integrate service-learning into preservice teachers' field experiences. Working with an expert teacher, preservice teachers can engage school children and youth in service projects that are relevant and meaningful to a community. These service projects provide multiple avenues for P-12 students to demonstrate their knowledge and perform at a variety of levels, thus enabling the teachers, both preservice

and expert, to accommodate the range of differences in their classrooms. Research supports increased learning through service-learning for special populations, such as students with learning difficulties (Schine, 1989; Brill, 1994) and those at risk of school failure (Duckenfield & Swanson, 1992; Krug, 1991). In addition to academic benefits, involvement in service-learning can positively impact the development of students' moral reasoning (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Reck, 1978), self-esteem (Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Luchs, 1980; Waterman, 1993), identity development (Rutter & Newmann, 1989), attitudes toward others, their sense of social and personal responsibility (Root, 1997), and sense of caring (Middleton, 1993).

Service-learning activities can provide preservice and experienced teachers with a rich context to learn more about children and how they learn as well as strategies and methods of including and accommodating the range of learners found in today's P-12 classrooms.

PROPOSITION 2: TEACHERS KNOW THE SUBJECTS THEY TEACH AND HOW TO TEACH THOSE SUBJECTS TO STUDENTS

The standards make clear the expectation that teachers contribute to the learning of students through the concepts, tools, and structures used in a particular subject area; key is the teacher's ability to help students make connections between a discipline's concepts and the students' concrete experience of the world (INTASC Principle 1; NCATE Standard 1).

While the pedagogy of a given subject is the responsibility of the teacher education program at the institution of higher education, the development of prospective teachers' discipline knowledge is within the purview of the college's arts and sciences programs. The literature on service-learning in higher education is replete with examples of ways service-learning has been incorporated into disciplinary studies to enhance the understanding of course content. (See, for example, the American Association for Higher Education's series, *Service-Learning in the Disciplines*, or any issue of the *Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning*. Conrad and Hedin (1991) describe the benefits of using service-learning to enhance the understanding of academic content:

It counters the distancing abstraction of much classroom instruction by placing information in context, with the real life nuances and applications that any fact or principle must have if

it is to carry genuine and useful meaning; and it motivates the learner by providing connections between academic content and the problems of real life; and it aids in retention as learning is made personal and applied in action (p. 745).

Although the research on the relationship between service-learning and academic gains is still scant, initial studies show positive effects on learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Astin & Sax, 1998; Boss, 1994; Cohen & Kinsey, 1994; Markus, Howard, & King, 1993) and academic behaviors such as academic engagement, attendance, and time on task (Root, 1997).

Within the teacher education program, service-learning as a pedagogical strategy provides many and varied opportunities to make learning the tools of the discipline meaningful. For decades, teacher education faculty in various disciplines have used tutoring as a course requirement that enables the prospective teacher to practice various teaching strategies being modeled in the college classroom as well as to learn content. More recently, faculty in methods classes have used the umbrella of service-learning pedagogy to engage their preservice teachers in learning the teaching strategies of their disciplines by having them develop service-learning projects with P-12 students in school settings. Using service-learning projects, instructors are able to model problem solving, inquiry-oriented pedagogical strategies advocated by many of the learned societies (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1989). The following vignette provides an example of how service-learning can foster the development of discipline-specific knowledge.

In the science methods class, secondary preservice teachers are required to do a science unit in their high school field placements. The unit is designed to have students assess and address a community need. The student outcomes for the unit must connect to national and local science standards. Each preservice teacher collaboratively plans the project with his/her field teacher, most of whom have participated in the college's graduate course on service-learning. They often use the local newspaper as a resource, guiding high school students to identify community needs. In one instance, an article on a local child who contracted spinal meningitis prompted the preservice teachers to develop a unit on preparing an informational pamphlet for

families in the community, with the goal of helping to prevent this disease. In another case, an article on high levels of bacteria in an estuary fostered the development of a unit on measuring water quality in a local stream. The college faculty member uses the units to illustrate the importance of making learning relevant as well as to model various methods and materials in science, such as hypothesis formulation and data collection.

In this example, service-learning activities provide preservice teachers with concrete practice in making real-world applications of the concepts, tools, and processes of their disciplines.

PROPOSITION 3: TEACHERS ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR MANAGING AND MONITORING STUDENTS' LEARNING

The standards make explicit the need for teachers to have a repertoire of pedagogical skills and strategies to use in organizing and managing classroom performance. Key is the use of multiple methods to reach learning goals; the teacher needs to be able to continually monitor and adjust instruction as needed so that all students' needs are addressed (INTASC Principles 3-8; NCATE Standard 1).

With its roots in experiential learning, service-learning engages students actively in learning. Teachers guide the instructional process rather than transmit knowledge; they become partners with students as they work together to transform schools into learning communities (Bhaerman, Cordell, & Gomez, 1998). Cairn (1992) notes that students learn to make daily choices as projects progress and become motivated as they see the relevance of learning and acquire new skills. Teachers act as facilitators, learning to be flexible with schedules so that learning can occur in its own time rather than "by the bell." The following vignette describes how a math methods course includes service-learning and prepares preservice teachers to effectively manage instruction and use authentic assessment.

In a math methods class, third-year students spend three hours a week in an elementary classroom. The central assignment for the course is the development of a service-learning project that includes the teaching of mathematics concepts and skills and engages elementary students in service. Pairs of teacher candidates work with the classroom teacher and students to development a

project that involves some element of the math curriculum. The elementary students are engaged in each step of the project's development, including making decisions about community needs and project focus. Teacher candidates guide the process and act as facilitators, structuring class meetings and discussions, helping students to develop ownership of the project, and incorporating curriculum goals as they fit into the development of the activities. Examples of projects include collecting money for mittens for kindergarten students, developing a set of math games for first graders, and creating a counting book for preschoolers. As projects develop, preservice teachers have the opportunity to use different management and instructional strategies in a variety of environments both in and outside of the classroom. They also develop evaluation tools based upon the project, providing assessment on development of specific mathematics content and skills.

Through this assignment and opportunities to reflect on their work in the elementary classroom, preservice teachers gain skills in motivating and managing instruction for P-12 students. They have occasions to evaluate curricular outcomes for students in meaningful situations and to consistently engage in authentic assessment of project progress and results. In the final phase, the preservice teachers can evaluate the overall effort, including both academic outcomes and community impacts, examining both instructional lessons and the service activities in promoting the curriculum's goals (Shumer, 1997). Learning to carry out service-learning projects involves constant examination of the relationships among students, instruction, and project activities. Emerging teachers must make sense of the process as they respond to student and community needs. This process provides them with a testing ground for their ability to be flexible, manage behavior, instruction, and assessment, and create environments where all children can learn.

PROPOSITION 4: TEACHERS THINK SYSTEMATICALLY ABOUT THEIR PRACTICE AND LEARN FROM EXPERIENCE

Much has been made of Schön's (1987) term "reflective practitioner" in the field of teaching. Again, the standards across the continuum of teacher professional development emphasize how important reflection—grounded in

observations of the children's performance, knowledge of child growth and learning, and the knowledge bases of the discipline—is in the ongoing improvement of practice (INTASC Principle 9; NCATE Standard 1). Reflection is also a key factor that distinguishes service-learning from community service. By engaging in meaningful reflection, individuals transform the service experience into a service-learning experience (Silcox, 1993) so that each informs and supports the other. Ideally, both teachers and children engage in reflection at all stages of service-learning projects, including planning, implementation, and evaluation. The following illustration shows how service-learning can help to develop reflective teachers who learn from and engage in reflection to better their practice.

Seniors in an elementary teacher education program take a course [that] focuses on strategies for assessing and developing curriculum for students with disabilities and includes a two-hour practicum in a special education setting. In the college classroom, service-learning is examined as an appropriate strategy to use with children and adolescents at risk for school failure and for those with learning problems. Preservice teachers, working in groups of three, are provided with models of service-learning projects and individual education plans (IEPs) and work cooperatively to connect student IEP objectives, such as those that relate to increasing literacy and math skills to project outcomes and activities such as writing alphabet books for kindergartners or conducting a bottle recycling project to raise money for the school library.

Later in the semester, pairs of teacher candidates share reflections about their work and the service-learning project they are developing with students in a course-related practicum. They provide feedback to each other about project planning and implementation. As the semester progresses, they support suggestions with individual experiences and consider how their own thoughts on teaching and working with children with disabilities have changed over time. One student's comments about her project exemplify how reflection can be fostered through using service-learning: "My service-learning project has taught me that teachers must be flexible and be willing to appre-

ciate each child's special learning style. I've been taught in courses that each child is different, but the service project made me realize that being different doesn't always mean that it will be hard to teach that person. I had to figure out a way for every one of the students to have a role in the project and that seemed really hard. But after a while, I began to see how they could all work on the same thing but contribute something different to the final result. The students were all so excited about the book for the kindergarten that they worked together really well and I had hardly any discipline problems. It made me think that in a regular classroom it must be like that too. If I can find something that everyone is interested in and if the students feel like they're contributing in their own way, it will be a happier and easier-to-manage classroom."

PROPOSITION 5: TEACHERS ARE MEMBERS OF LEARNING COMMUNITIES

Across the standards, teaching is represented as collaborative. Teachers need to connect not only with other professionals in the school community but also with families and community members who can be colleagues in promoting learning and addressing children's needs (INTASC Principle 10; NCATE Standard 1). Service-learning requires that teachers work collaboratively with professional colleagues and community members in assessing community needs and in designing, implementing, and evaluating service-learning projects. The following example illustrates how service-learning might strengthen preservice teachers' collaborative skills and help them to become skilled and comfortable working with professionals and community members.

At one college, preservice teachers work to develop service-learning projects during their student teaching semester. Supervising faculty and cooperating teachers are provided with professional development workshops focused on service-learning and act as mentors to the student teachers. In one middle school, the student teacher noticed that there seemed to be an atmosphere of tension and discord among the students. After speaking with the supervising teacher and students, it was decided that one need that the school seemed to have was for a

consistent program for managing student disagreements and for reducing fighting. The student teacher developed a service-learning project with his seventh-grade social studies class that was designed to teach students in the school how to manage their behavior when disagreeing with someone else. The student teacher met with mental health professionals in the school and identified possible programs that could be used. The principal agreed to have the student teacher present the project to the school improvement team. Together they choose a program to use and decided to let the student teacher's class pilot the program for the remainder of the school year. The following reflection shares some thoughts about the student's teacher's role in the service-learning project: "I was apprehensive about working in a school and especially about working with other teachers. I thought that they'd see me as a student and wouldn't consider my ideas as good as their own. But this project really helped me to become comfortable working with everyone in the school. They all saw the fighting as a real problem and thought it was a great idea to work on aggressive behavior. They gave me great support and let my students work with theirs. It was kind of hard scheduling sometimes, but we seemed to work everything out pretty well because we were all working toward something that we thought was important to the school and students. I thought a service-learning project would be hard to do, but I found that with the cooperation of other teachers and Mr. Rich (the principal), it was a great experience that allowed me to see what teaching and working in a school is really about."

SUMMARY

P-16 faculty unfamiliar with service-learning often consider it synonymous with community service and think of it as a "feel good" add-on that supports the development of P-16 students' positive dispositions toward the community. Certainly, service-learning does foster the development of a student's social and personal responsibility (Root, 1997), promotes a greater sense of caring (Middleton, 1993), and develops enhanced civic competence and democratic values (Bourgeois, 1978). But service-learning

ing is much more than service. Myers and Pickeral (1997) have argued that service-learning supports many school reform efforts. In this chapter, we have examined one of those school reform efforts, the development of standards for teachers and teacher education programs, and described how service-learning can be used to support the acquisition and performance of these outcomes within rich contexts.

TABLE 1. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NATIONAL BOARD, INTASC, AND NCATE PROGRAM APPROVAL GUIDELINES

FIVE CORE NATIONAL BOARD PROPOSITIONS (1990)	INTASC CORE PRINCIPLES (1992)	NCATE STANDARD I AND TARGET RUBRIC INDICATORS (2000)
Proposition 1. Teachers are committed to students and their learning.	<p>Principle 2. The teacher understands how children learn and develop and can provide learning opportunities that support their intellectual, social, and personal development.</p> <p>Principle 3. The teacher understands how children differ in their approaches to learning and creates instructional opportunities that are adapted to diverse learners.</p> <p>Principle 7. The teacher plans instruction based upon knowledge of subject matter, students, community, and curriculum goals.</p>	<p>Standard 1. Candidates preparing to work in schools as teachers or other professional school personnel know the content of their fields, demonstrate professional and pedagogical knowledge, skills, and dispositions, and apply them so that all students learn. Assessments indicate that candidates meet professional, state, and institutional standards.</p> <p>Candidates' work with students, families, and communities reflects the dispositions expected of professional educators as delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. Candidates recognize when their own dispositions may need to be adjusted and are able to develop plans to do so.</p>

**FIVE CORE NATIONAL
BOARD PROPOSITIONS
(1990)**

INTASC CORE PRINCIPLES (1992)

**NCATE STANDARD I AND
TARGET RUBRIC INDICATORS
(2000)**

Proposition 2. Teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students.

Principle 1. The teacher understands the central concepts, tools of inquiry, and structures of the discipline(s) he or she teaches and can create learning experiences that make these aspects of subject matter meaningful for students.

Principle 4. The teacher understands and uses a variety of instructional strategies to encourage students' development of critical-thinking, problem-solving, and performance skills.

Principle 7. The teacher plans instruction based upon knowledge of subject matter, students, the community, and curriculum goals.

Teacher candidates have in-depth knowledge of the subject matter they plan to teach as described in professional, state, and institutional standards. They demonstrate their knowledge through inquiry, critical analysis, and synthesis of the subject.

Teacher candidates reflect a thorough understanding of pedagogical content knowledge, delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards. They have in-depth understanding of the subject matter they plan to teach, allowing them to provide multiple explanations and instructional strategies so that all students learn. They present the content to students in challenging, clear, and compelling ways and integrate technology appropriately.

Proposition 3. Teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring students' learning.

Principle 7. The teacher plans instruction based upon knowledge of subject matter, students, the community, and curriculum goals.

Principle 5. The teacher uses an understanding of individual and group motivation and behavior to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation.

Principle 6. The teacher uses knowledge of effective verbal, nonverbal, and media communication techniques to foster active inquiry, collaboration, and supportive interaction in the classroom.

Principle 8. The teacher understands and uses formal and informal assessment strategies to evaluate and ensure the continuous intellectual, social, and physical development of the learner.

Teacher candidates accurately assess and analyze student learning, make appropriate adjustments to instruction, monitor student learning, and have a positive effect on learning for all students.

FIVE CORE NATIONAL
BOARD PROPOSITIONS
(1990)

INTASC CORE PRINCIPLES (1992)

NCATE STANDARD I AND
TARGET RUBRIC INDICATORS
(2000)

Proposition 4. Teachers think systematically about their practice.

Principle 9. The teacher is a reflective practitioner who continually evaluates the effects of his/her choices and actions on others (students, parents, and other professionals in the learning community) and who actively seeks out opportunities to grow professionally from experience.

Candidates reflect a thorough understanding of professional and pedagogical knowledge and skills delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards, as shown in their development of meaningful learning experiences to facilitate student learning for all students. They reflect on their practice and make necessary adjustments to enhance student learning. They know how students learn and how to make ideas accessible to them. They consider school, family, and community contexts in connecting concepts to students' prior experience, and applying the ideas to real-world problems.

Proposition 5. Teachers are members of learning communities.

Principle 10. The teacher fosters relationships with school colleagues, parents, and agencies in the larger community to support students' learning and well-being.

See target indicator above.

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PRINCIPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE FOR SERVICE-LEARNING IN PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

■ JEFFREY B. ANDERSON AND DON HILL

The purpose of this chapter is to provide principles to guide the integration of service-learning into the preservice teacher education curriculum. The 10 principles included here were developed by a group of teacher educators and service-learning practitioners from all regions of the United States, who contributed their ideas and feedback to achieve consensus. The contributors are listed at the end of this chapter. These principles of good practice can be used by teacher educators to design and assess their service-learning activities, and by policy makers to guide decisions regarding resource allocation and program development.

WHAT IS SERVICE-LEARNING?

Service-learning involves the combination of service and learning in a way that both occur and are enriched by each other. The National and Community Service Act of 1993 defined service-learning as an educational method that:

- Helps students or participants learn and develop by participating in thoughtfully organized service that is conducted in and meets the needs of a community;
- Is coordinated with an elementary school, secondary school, or institution of higher education or community service program, and with the community;
- Helps to foster civic responsibility;
- Is integrated into and enhances students' academic curriculum or the educational components of the community service program in which the participants are enrolled; and
- Provides structured time for students or other participants to reflect on their service experience.

It is important to distinguish service-learning from community service and other forms of experiential learning such as internships to achieve the full benefits of service-learning. Community service is service designed to address a community need. The primary focus of community service is on serving, and the primary beneficiaries are the service recipients. An example of community service is a food drive in which students bring canned foods to a school, where they are collected and later picked up by a truck from a food bank.

Internships and other types of field education focus primarily on the learning to be gained by the students involved. The primary beneficiary is the student. An example is a traditional student teaching experience in which a teacher candidate learns how to teach by gaining the necessary skills under the guidance of an experienced practitioner.

Service-learning is a combination of these two activities; the focus is on both the service provided and the learning that occurs. The primary beneficiaries of service-learning are the students who learn and the communities they serve. An example of service-learning is high school government class students tutoring new immigrants to assist them in passing citizenship tests. The students strengthen their knowledge of U.S. government and history while simultaneously helping the immigrants achieve their goal of becoming citizens. It is important to note that service-learning can address a need or problem that exists either at the school or in the broader community.

PHILOSOPHY AND ISSUES

Service-learning has much in common with other approaches to education, especially other forms of experiential, or applied, education. Service-learning has as its essence, however, a focus on contributing to the common good. This emphasis on addressing genuine community needs, to help others and/or the community by making a positive difference, is a large component of what makes service-learning effective.

The use of service-learning as a teaching method also includes a distinct view of the role of P-12 schools and higher education in our society. Educational institutions are seen not just as places where students go to learn but as resources for community development. Educational institutions can use service-learning to both meet their obligation to teach their students and to help address real community needs.

Service-learning also includes a vision of the role of young people in our society. Rather than being seen as problems or as resources for the future, students are recognized as a current resource. They can be productive citizens now by applying their abilities and efforts to address community needs while developing the skills and dispositions necessary for future success.

STUDENT TEACHING AND SERVICE-LEARNING

In teacher education, confusion arises regarding whether a typical student teaching placement is a form of service-learning. Traditional student teaching experiences are most often not service-learning experiences for two main reasons. First, in student teaching, the primary focus is on the student's professional development. The P-12 students, teachers, or schools may benefit from the efforts of the student teacher, but that is not the main purpose of the field placement. In fact, the experienced teachers involved may see the benefit as less than the cost they pay in terms of the time and effort they expend to get the student teacher up to speed. Second, successful service-learning involves an emphasis on civic responsibility, whereas most student teaching placements focus on the learning benefits received by the preservice teacher.

Some educators believe a clear distinction between service-learning and student teaching needs to be maintained to achieve the maximum benefit from either. Others say the two can be blended successfully when a context is created in which the goals of the teacher education program and the needs of the P-12 school are both emphasized. In this case, it is essential that the focus be on the creation of an ethic of service by emphasizing the preservice teachers and the P-12 schools as both service providers and service recipients.

RATIONALES FOR SERVICE-LEARNING IN PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Service-learning in preservice teacher education programs can help to accomplish a variety of goals. To achieve the desired outcomes, it is important for individual teacher educators and the teacher education program as a whole to be clear regarding what they intend to accomplish by engaging teacher candidates in service-learning. The following rationales have been provided for including service-learning in preservice teacher education:

- *Preparation to use service-learning as a pedagogy.* Preservice teachers can learn to successfully use service-learning as a pedagogy with their future P-12 students. This preparation will facilitate many more children's and youth's engaging in service-learning to benefit their communities and themselves.
- *Achievement of teacher education standards.* Participation in service-learning experiences can help teacher candidates meet a variety of state and national standards. For example, service-learning activities can be closely connected to the following INTASC (Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium) standards:
 - a. The teacher plans instruction based on knowledge of subject matter, students, the community, and curriculum goals.
 - b. The teacher fosters relationships with school colleagues, parents, and agencies in the larger community to support students' learning and well-being.
 - c. The teacher understands the central concepts, tools of inquiry, and structures of the discipline(s) he or she teaches and can create learning experiences that make these aspects of subject matter meaningful for students.
 - d. The teacher understands and uses a variety of instructional strategies to encourage students' development of critical thinking, problem solving, and performance skills.
 - e. The teacher understands how students differ in their approaches to learning and creates instructional opportunities that are adapted to diverse learners.
- *The development of habits of critical inquiry and reflection.* Teacher educators can use preservice teachers' service-learning experiences to explore ethical dilemmas inherent in teaching and social reconstruction.
- *An increase in familiarity and skill with educational reform initiatives.* Service-learning helps prospective teachers grasp the importance of performance-based assessment, the use of themes for teaching integrated units, problem-solving and critical-thinking skills, and cooperation. Service-learning also assists in developing a democratic classroom in which the teacher serves as a coach or facilitator and engages students in shared decision making.
- *Personal and social development.* Involving teacher candidates in real-world settings where they deal with challenging situations while working for the common good can be an effective means of promoting personal

growth. Self-esteem, moral and ego development, and social responsibility can be enhanced through participation in service-learning.

- *Social justice and appreciation of human diversity.* Preservice teachers can engage in service for the common good by addressing social, political, economic, and cultural injustices through direct service and advocacy projects. In the process, they can also gain increased respect for human differences and commonalities and learn how to prepare their students to do the same.
- *Democratic citizenship.* Service-learning can effectively address the goals of citizenship education and preparation for active participation in a democracy. Beginning teachers need to be living examples of active, democratic citizens to most effectively prepare their students for informed, active participation in our democratic society.

THE PRINCIPLES AND HOW TO USE THEM

These principles include important considerations that have been found to contribute to successful service-learning outcomes. Teacher educators and others interested in developing strong service-learning experiences can benefit greatly from the collected wisdom represented in these principles. These principles are not absolutes to be applied rigidly, however, nor are they a knowledge base supported by a body of experimental research results. The principles raise issues that should be discussed thoroughly by those engaged in the design and implementation of service-learning in preservice teacher education. For teacher educators to achieve the greatest degree of success with service-learning, they should also participate in professional development workshops that address the theory and practice of service-learning.

Few, if any, teacher education programs presently have a service-learning component that integrates all 10 of these principles. The principles present ideals that are worth striving for, even if it is not possible to integrate all 10. The successful integration of any one of these principles will strengthen service-learning activities, and they are therefore beneficial for those new to service-learning as well as for experienced practitioners.

Principle 1. Preservice teachers should prepare to use service-learning as a pedagogy by participating in service-learning experiences as well as in-class study of principles of good service-learning practice.

Beginning teachers are unlikely to use service-learning in their classrooms unless they receive explicit instruction in its use as a pedagogy. This instruction increases the chance that beginning teachers will engage their students in service-learning experiences and thereby expand benefits to both learners and the community.

Instruction in the use of service-learning as a pedagogy should consist of two primary components. First, preservice teachers should participate in classroom instruction regarding the use of service-learning as a pedagogy and as a philosophy of education. This instruction should include placing service-learning within a broader theoretical framework such as experiential education and child/adolescent development, rationales for the use of service-learning, theories and research explaining the dynamics and benefits of service-learning, study of principles of good service-learning practice, examples of successful service-learning projects, and creation of a written service-learning lesson plan or unit of instruction.

Second, preservice teachers should participate in two types of service-learning experiences. In the initial stages of their preparation, they should engage in service themselves and participate in reflective activities that intentionally link service experiences to academic learning outcomes. After receiving classroom instruction in the use of service-learning, preservice teachers should have direct experience with service-learning as a pedagogy, which involves preservice teachers' working with P-12 teachers and students and community partners to design and implement service-learning projects that integrate principles of good service-learning practice.

Principle 2. Teacher education faculty involved with service-learning should have a clear understanding of service-learning theory and principles of good practice and model these principles in their use of service-learning as a teaching method.

The "do as I say, not as I do" approach that has been common at all levels of education for many years is clearly unsuccessful when employed with service-learning. The messages in the hidden curriculum of teacher education, whether encountered in university settings, school settings, or the larger community, may effectively contradict the explicit curriculum. Therefore, it is incumbent upon teacher educators involved with service-learning to learn all they can about successful service-learning practice and to use what they have learned in their own teaching.

Teacher educators should participate in workshops and other preparation experiences that focus on service-learning applications at both the P-12 and higher education levels. This dual responsibility is necessary because teacher educators need to employ service-learning effectively as college or university faculty members as well as prepare preservice teachers to successfully integrate service-learning into the P-12 curriculum (Appendix A also includes "Standards of Quality for School-Based and Community-Based Service-Learning" from the Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform). It is especially helpful for teacher educators experienced with service-learning to participate in advanced, in-depth service-learning activities designed to prepare them to provide mentoring and technical assistance to teacher educators new to service-learning.

Service-learning faculty should engage in service-learning research and program evaluation with their students and community partners. This practice will allow them to model the evaluation and collaboration components of service-learning for their students and to obtain data for program improvement and publication.

Principle 3. Teacher education courses that include service-learning should be grounded in theories and practices of teaching and learning that are congruent with service-learning.

Teacher educators who use in-class approaches to teaching and learning that actively involve preservice teachers in the construction of their own knowledge provide these students with an environment that is more conducive to successful service-learning than those who rely primarily on the dissemination of information in their approach to instruction. Teacher educators who act as facilitators of preservice teachers' learning are able to help reduce the distinction between students assuming the role of passive-follower in the classroom and active-leader in the community. These conflicting role expectations for preservice teachers can produce confusion and result in decreased learning and limited success with service. Teacher educators should also model for their students how to learn from service experiences and how to combine this form of experiential learning with academic learning.

Principle 4. The design, implementation, and evaluation of service-learning projects should reflect all stakeholders' needs and interests, including those of preservice teachers, P-12 students, and other community members.

The most successful teacher education-based service-learning projects are characterized by a synergy created when preservice teachers', community members', teacher educators', and P-12 students' and teachers' energy and creativity are all tapped to produce service-learning outcomes greater than any group could accomplish alone. To reach this point requires all these stakeholders to play a collaborative role in all facets of service-learning.

Service-learning should address real, recognized community needs. Teacher educators and preservice teachers should work with community agencies and other community members to assess needs and assets in the beginning stage of each service-learning project. It is especially important to avoid an approach to service-learning in which the university is perceived as coming in to "fix" a community problem.

Preservice teachers gain the most from participation in service-learning when they play an authentic leadership role in the planning and conduct of service-learning activities. This role necessitates real input and decision-making authority regarding important issues in the project. When teacher candidates are trusted by faculty to provide important services to the community, they are more likely to do their best work, and this positive modeling increases the chance that these teacher candidates will provide their future P-12 students with the same opportunities for an active voice in service-learning.

Principle 5. Reciprocity and mutual respect should characterize the collaboration among teacher education programs, P-12 schools, and the community.

When collaboration, mutual respect, and reciprocity are present in all phases of service-learning, the benefits for all parties can be maximized. To do so requires regular ongoing communication regarding community needs and assets and development and implementation of a service-learning plan that includes reflection and evaluation. In addition, the service-learning partners need to develop clear roles and responsibilities, especially as they pertain to the supervision and evaluation of preservice teachers and P-12 students.

A third essential collaborative activity is the creation of shared outcomes. As collaborative partnerships deepen over time, all parties should be involved in connecting service-learning opportunities to teacher education and P-12 service-learning goals.

This collaboration can be very time consuming for all parties. Teacher educators can seek out like-minded individuals in P-12 schools and the community or obtain assistance from the campus service-learning coordinator, AmeriCorps members, or graduate assistants. Faculty members' active engagement in collaboration is important to support curriculum integration and the creation of a shared culture of service.

Principle 6. Preservice teachers should participate in multiple and varied service-learning experiences that involve working with diverse community members.

Service-learning experiences for preservice teachers should occur in more than one course in their preparation program. The service-learning projects should involve work with both P-12 schools and other community organizations. Each added service-learning experience increases preservice teachers' understanding of the variety of possible goals of service-learning involvement, the numerous possible connections to the academic curriculum, and the different ways in which reflection, assessment, and preparation can be done.

Preservice teachers need to experience and understand the benefits and limitations of different types of service-learning (direct, indirect, and advocacy), short-term versus ongoing service-learning, and service with different populations and community organizations (intergenerational, animals, poverty, environmental, or service-learning on the school grounds, to name a few). These understandings can benefit from participation in a variety of service-learning experiences and by having preservice teachers who have participated in different types of activities come together to share their experiences and critically analyze the strengths and limitations of each project.

Participation in these diverse service-learning experiences should also include a focus on deeper individual, social, political, cultural, and economic issues that underlie each project and give rise to the initial need for service. Preservice teachers' appreciation for the potential transformative power of service-learning will grow as they examine issues of social justice and the relationship between individualism and commitment to the common good.

A focus on serving with diverse community groups refers not only to racial, cultural, gender, and age differences but also to social and economic levels, physical and mental abilities, and other factors that make up

personal identity. In addition, a commitment to diversity includes respect for culturally different ways in which people identify and express needs, assets, goals, training, reflection, support, recognition, and evaluation. Teacher educators should also recognize and encourage diverse interpretations of principles of good practice for service-learning and the variety of assumptions and rationales that preservice teachers and others may bring to their use of service-learning.

Principle 7. Preservice teachers should participate in a variety of frequent and structured reflection activities and prepare to facilitate reflection with their future students.

Reflection refers to the framework in which students process and synthesize information and ideas they have gained through their entire service experience and in the classroom. Participation in reflection activities is the key to helping students integrate service experiences with core learning goals. During reflection, preservice teachers and other service-learning participants not only examine what happened in their service project and how they feel about it but also analyze and make sense of their service experiences. In this way, they can learn from their service and apply this knowledge to their own lives, the broader community, and future service-learning projects. The most effective reflection also extends to critical examination of deeper issues of citizenship, public policy, and the relationship between individual learning and development and service addressing community needs.

Reflection activities should support preplanned service-learning curricular objectives and be open to including unanticipated service and learning outcomes. Reflection activities should be closely linked to the institutions' primary rationale for involvement in service-learning and the service and learning goals for a particular course. This type of reflection will help students place their service experience in the context that is driving the use of service-learning as a teaching method in that course or school. All parties participating in service-learning can and should engage in reflection together; the insights and experiences shared by P-12 students and teachers, preservice teachers, university faculty, parents, administrators, and other community members can heighten the learning of all involved.

Reflection should occur before, during, and after service-learning activities. Reflection before service can be an effective form of preparation for

service, helping to ensure that students have the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to be successful in the coming service-learning project. Reflection during service can be an important form of problem solving, and reflection after service activities can be used to help students assess their progress and growth and prepare for more effective subsequent service. Faculty can use these reflections to assist them in assessing the knowledge and skills students have gained from the service experience.

Reflection should involve multiple methods. The use of visual, oral, written, and artistic reflection activities conducted in large groups, small groups, and individual settings can help ensure that all students gain the benefits of reflection.

Principle 8. Preservice teachers should learn how to use formative and summative assessment to enhance student learning and measure service-learning outcomes.

Effective assessment of service-learning is both necessary and challenging. Preservice teachers need theoretical and practical grounding in applying formative and summative assessment if they are to meet this challenge. Teacher educators should place particularly strong emphasis on assessment of service-learning to counteract the tendency of beginning teachers to overlook or engage in superficial assessment of their service-learning activities. Preparation in assessment methods for use with service-learning can be tied to assessment instruction for other instructional methods. Preservice teachers should develop a basic understanding of how to link assessment to predetermined, measurable goals for service-learning experiences. In addition, they need to be prepared to encourage, assess, and communicate the frequent unplanned outcomes of service-learning.

Preservice teachers should learn to use a variety of forms of authentic assessment to assess oral presentations, artistic forms of expression, and the degree to which community needs were met by the service activities. In addition, traditional measures such as essay and objective tests and written papers can be used to measure student learning.

Assessment should serve as an instructional tool to enhance student learning as well as to measure the degree to which students have achieved instructional goals and the program has addressed community needs. To the extent feasible, community members should also participate in the design and use of the assessment tools. Both P-12 and teacher education

students need to participate in designing and implementing the assessment of their service-learning experiences. Teacher educators should model helping students develop assessment tools they can use to measure and communicate their service-learning accomplishments.

Principle 9. Teacher educators should align service-learning outcomes with program goals and state and national standards for teacher certification and program accreditation.

Teacher educators are currently restructuring their programs around national standards for novice teachers (INTASC), national program accreditation standards (the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education), state standards, and discipline-based standards for P-12 student learning such as those put forth by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. In this era of standards-driven teacher and teacher education accountability systems, it makes practical sense for service-learning instruction and activities to directly address these standards. Many programs have no room for curriculum or instruction that does not clearly relate to a standard. For others, linking service-learning to a standard helps to ensure that it will remain in the teacher education program when faculty or administration changes.

Service-learning can be used to reinforce and support standards; however, standards should not be used to arbitrarily limit the types of service-learning performed. Teacher educators should use their professional judgment when deciding to approve student- or community-initiated service-learning projects that at first glance do not clearly align with program goals or standards. Other factors to be considered include students' interest, community needs, the university's mission, and personal educational philosophies. Learning opportunities that arise spontaneously often result in the most powerful service-learning outcomes. It is important that teacher educators assist students in designing service-learning activities that achieve standards while remaining open to unplanned educational experiences they can use to expand preservice teachers' learning beyond what is mandated.

Principle 10. The teacher education program, institution, and the community should support service-learning by providing the resources and structural elements necessary for continued success.

A successful teacher education service-learning program provides clear benefits for its higher education institution as well as its P-12 and other community partners. Therefore, it is reasonable and necessary that all of these groups provide the support essential for service-learning to succeed (although the primary responsibility for these resources falls on the college or university). The teacher education program and institution should provide support in the following areas:

1. Service-learning should support the teacher education and institutional missions.
2. Faculty roles and rewards, including workload and tenure and promotion policies, should recognize the time and effort required to engage successfully in service-learning.
3. The institution should make a long-term commitment to build and maintain a solid service-learning program base.
4. Policies and procedures should create an environment supportive of service-learning.
5. Deans, department chairs, and other administrators should publicly sanction service-learning initiatives and promote service-learning within the college, school, department of education, and institution.
6. Service-learning should be funded through regular teacher education and institutional budgets and not depend on outside sources for regular operations.
7. An institution-wide or college, school, or department of education-specific service-learning coordinator should work with faculty to arrange service-learning placements, establish and maintain collaborative partnerships, engage in supervision and coordination, and provide professional development, training, and technical assistance to faculty, P-12 schools, and other community members.
8. Budgets should provide sufficient funds for the transportation, supplies, and instructional materials needed for effective service-learning.
9. The teacher education course schedule should provide preservice teachers and faculty with sufficient time to engage in service-learning.
10. The teacher education program and/or the institution should have a comprehensive risk management plan that includes preparation regarding safety issues and liability insurance that fully covers preservice teachers and faculty engaged in service-learning.

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Also, see Appendix A for the Standards of Quality for School-Based and Community-Based Service-Learning developed by the Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform (ASLER), March 1995.

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RESEARCH ON SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

What are some characteristics common to exemplary service-learning programs? What pedagogical skills are strengthened through preservice teachers' engagement in planning, implementing, and evaluating a service-learning project? Can service-learning become an integrative structure for an entire teacher preparation program, and what costs and benefits are associated with using service-learning in this manner?

Although the body of research on service-learning in teacher education has grown substantially since 1995, our understanding of this new field is still quite limited. Additional studies, conducted by a larger number of researchers, are needed in order to answer the above questions. There is also a need to determine ways in which service-learning is being implemented and institutionalized in teacher education programs and to examine other effects of service-learning participation on preservice teachers, their students, and communities.

This part of the book begins by providing a synthesis of what we know about service-learning in the education of preservice teachers. This synthesis establishes a foundation for examining the following four action research descriptions that address effects of service-learning on preservice teachers and teacher education programs, as well as the use of portraiture as a research method. The final chapter in this section offers readers a discussion of possible strands of research emphasis regarding service-learning in teacher education, a framework for doing research in this area, and potential research questions. It concludes with an examination of methodological and ethical issues relevant to these research efforts.

Teacher educators and other researchers can play an important role in shaping the future of service-learning in preservice teacher education through engaging in action research and other more complex studies that address the key questions presented in this part of the book. If this field is to grow in quality and quantity we must take the initiative to critically examine and improve the service-learning experiences engaged in by teacher candidates.

CHAPTER 6

A REVIEW OF RESEARCH ON SERVICE-LEARNING IN PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

■ SUE ROOT AND ANDREW FURCO

In the last decade, service-learning has received increased recognition as an important component in the preparation of teachers (Erikson & Anderson, 1997). In 1993, for example, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development endorsed the adoption of service-learning by teacher education programs (Anderson, 2000). In 1997, the Corporation for National Service funded several training and technical assistance projects to assist institutions seeking to infuse service-learning into teacher preparation, including the National Service-Learning in Teacher Education Partnership and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education's SLATE (Service-Learning and Teacher Education) project. It is estimated that 200 teacher education programs now incorporate service-learning.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of recent research on this movement. The majority of studies of service-learning in teacher education have addressed two primary issues. One set has focused on the ways in which service-learning is being implemented and institutionalized in teacher education programs, while a second has concerned the effects of service-learning on teaching candidates.

STUDIES OF IMPLEMENTATION AND INSTITUTIONALIZATION

With the general increase in service-learning in P-12 schools has come a call for beginning teachers who are knowledgeable about this method and adept at incorporating it in their classrooms. This need has sparked several efforts by researchers to explore the ways and degree to which teacher education programs are training future teachers in the pedagogy of service-learning.

THE STATUS OF SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Despite the growth in teacher education programs using service-learning, the number of teacher educators who recognize and understand the con-

cept of service-learning remains small. In a recent 3-year study of the status of service-learning in California's teacher education programs, Furco and Ammon (2000) found that service-learning was not widely understood by teacher educators, despite a recent statewide initiative to advance service-learning in P-12 schools.

Furco and Ammon administered a survey comprising 32 items in four categories (pedagogy, methods, philosophy, and service-learning) to teacher education deans and a set of randomly selected teacher educators from 74 California institutions. When asked about the pedagogies emphasized in their programs, respondents were least likely to cite service-learning. Only 65% of respondents (n=71) indicated that their programs introduced candidates to service-learning, despite the fact that almost all programs exposed students to pedagogies highly compatible with this approach, such as constructivist teaching (98.5%), active learning (97.2%), experiential education (94.4%), and project-based learning (94.3%). Similarly, when asked about methods used in their teacher education classes, only 65% of those surveyed reported using service-learning, compared with small-group discussion (100%), reflection (98.6%), analysis of fieldwork (98.6%), integration of fieldwork and course work (98.6%), and journal writing (97.2%).

Furco and Ammon concluded that while the pedagogy and methods stressed in California's teacher education programs are consistent with service-learning, service-learning itself is not a primary element. In their view, the neglect of service-learning reflects not opposition but a lack of understanding of this method, particularly among faculty at research institutions.

A general lack of understanding of service-learning among teacher education faculty was also found by Potthoff and colleagues (2000). In a study of 136 education students who participated in a service agency placement concurrent with a development course, Potthoff and colleagues found significant differences between college faculty and both preservice teachers and community personnel in their perceptions of the nature and quality of students' service-learning activities. Faculty believed students spent significantly more time doing clerical activities and significantly less time in direct interaction with clients than did either preservice teachers or community personnel. Faculty were also significantly less satisfied with the service-learning experience, which Potthoff and col-

leagues attribute in part to a lack of faculty involvement in the service-learning experience.

BARRIERS TO INCORPORATING SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Recent research suggests that the incorporation of service-learning in teacher education is hindered by several barriers and disincentives. Anderson and Pickeral (2000) surveyed 71 teacher educators with experience in service-learning regarding potential challenges to service-learning implementation. Challenges were grouped into four categories (institutional issues, curricular issues, faculty and student issues, and P-12 and community issues). Anderson and Pickeral further interviewed 30 teacher educators from the sample to determine potential strategies for addressing the most frequently mentioned challenges.

Wade surveyed 30 teacher educators from 21 different colleges and universities who were involved in the National Service-Learning in Teacher Education Partnership (NSLTEP). The goal of Wade's study was to assess faculty members' satisfaction with their experiences incorporating service-learning into teacher education programs.

In a paper integrating their results, Wade, Anderson, and Pickeral (2000) identified several common obstacles to service-learning implementation emergent from both studies. These barriers parallel those typically cited in the broader literature on service-learning in higher education.

The primary obstacle to implementation of service-learning found in both studies was time. Teacher education faculty recounted difficulties finding time to plan for and implement service-learning, including service-learning in the preservice curriculum, assess students' learning from service-learning, and develop and maintain collaborations with P-12 teachers and community members. In addition to time constraints, teacher educators cited lack of acceptance and interest in service-learning among colleagues as a barrier to service-learning implementation. Both studies also documented other obstacles to service-learning adoption, including difficulty communicating with P-12 teachers and community agency staff, the challenge of locating P-12 teachers interested in service-learning, unsuccessful experiences at P-12 service-learning sites, and difficulty in monitoring school and community service-learning sites. A final challenge identified by Wade, Anderson, and Pickeral was program constraints. Teacher educators noted the difficulty of including service-learning

ing in programs already rigidly constrained by national and state standards and institutional requirements. In fact, Anderson and Pickeral found that the overcrowded curriculum (an issue that surfaced in Furco and Ammon as well) was rated by their sample as their second most serious challenge.

In addition to those challenges identified by Wade, Anderson, and Pickeral (2000), Furco and Ammon (2000) found that the many existing definitions of service-learning lead to confusion among both teacher education faculty and P-12 educators regarding the educational intentions and purposes of this approach.

STRATEGIES FOR SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF SERVICE-LEARNING

Research on implementation and institutionalization has revealed not only obstacles to but strategies used by teacher educators to surmount the challenges to service-learning in teacher education programs. In their study, Anderson and Pickeral found more than 150 such strategies that, after further analysis, were subsumed under five themes:

1. Teacher educators can implement most strategies for successfully infusing service-learning without additional external or internal resources.
2. Initial use of service-learning should be small scale.
3. Teacher educators need to have a clear understanding of the philosophy and practice of service-learning.
4. Collaboration with P-12 and community partners is essential for the success of service-learning.
5. Supportive policies and infrastructure that aligns with practice are critical facilitators of service-learning integration within teacher education.

In their study, Furco and Ammon identified several elements that enhance the likelihood that service-learning will be institutionalized in teacher education:

1. Service-learning in teacher education is more likely to be institutionalized when it is tied to a broader campuswide service-learning effort.
2. Teacher education programs that have successfully incorporated service-learning tend to have a "service-learning champion" who leads the effort and promotes the advancement of service-learning in the program and/or to the broader campus.

3. Rewards to and recognition of faculty who advocate service-learning in the teacher education program are powerful incentives.
4. The involvement and support of the local school district is key for ensuring that teacher educators view service-learning as an important part of preservice teachers' education.
5. When student teachers are able to reflect on their service-learning experiences with practicing teachers who are doing service-learning, student teachers are more likely to feel comfortable with service-learning and in turn more likely to use it when they assume full-time teaching duties.

It should be noted that the elements identified by Anderson and Pickeral and by Furco and Ammon are consistent with the strategies identified in the broader literature on institutionalizing service-learning in higher education.

PRINCIPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE

One final focus of inquiry into implementation and institutionalization has centered around principles of good practice. Anderson (2000) conducted a study to determine experts' perceptions of the features of service-learning likely to lead to positive attitudes toward and deep understanding of this approach among candidates, as well as committed, high-quality practice (see Chapter 5, "Principles of Good Practice for Service-Learning in Preservice Teacher Education"). Using the Delphi approach, in which consensual data are obtained through a succession of group surveys, Anderson identified 10 principles of good practice for service-learning in teacher education.

IMPACTS ON TEACHING CANDIDATES

Efforts to include service-learning in teacher education have been bolstered by several rationales. For example, service-learning is believed to foster candidates' commitment to teaching and ethic of care (Green, Dalton, & Wilson, 1994; Root & Batchelder, 1994). Proponents have hypothesized effects for service-learning on candidates' awareness of personal biases and institutional racism, willingness to adapt instruction to the needs of diverse students, and commitment to social justice (Siegel, 1994; Vadeboncoeur, Rahm, Aguilera, & Le Compte, 1995). Finally, practice in the pedagogy of service-learning is thought to heighten candi-

dates' willingness and ability to use this method in their own classrooms. Research on service-learning in teacher education has evaluated these claims as well as others regarding the influence of service-learning on pre-service teachers' knowledge, skills, and dispositions.

ACADEMIC-INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Shastri (1999) conducted a quasi-experiment to determine the effects of a community service experience on candidates' subject area mastery and academic development. Students in an educational psychology course were randomly assigned to either a service-learning or control section. Those in the service-learning section completed 20 hours of service in community programs with P-12 students. Students in the service-learning section wrote reflective journals and papers, while the control group wrote research papers of comparable length. The study used three measures to assess the academic growth—scores on quizzes, exams, and written assignments, scores on quizzes and exams, and writing assignment scores. Results revealed that students in the service-learning section earned significantly higher scores for academic growth. Although their scores on quizzes and exams were slightly higher than those of comparison students, the differences were not significant; however, service-learning students did earn significantly higher scores on writing assignments.

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT/SELF-ESTEEM

Two studies have examined the effects of service-learning on preservice teachers' self-esteem, with mixed results. Using a standardized measure of self-esteem, Green and his colleagues (1994) assessed the effects of a tutoring project with at-risk youth on the self-esteem of secondary candidates. They found no significant effects for the experience. In contrast, Wade (1995a) analyzed interviews and journals to assess the personal development of students in an elementary methods course that had included a service project and a service-learning experience. She found that students made gains in both self-esteem and self-efficacy.

A second personal development outcome of service-learning is self-schema as a prosocial individual. Self-schema are defined as highly elaborate structures of knowledge about the self (Markus & Nurius, 1986, 1987). Self-schema include representations of the present self as well as "possible selves,"—representations of the self in desired and unwanted

future states. Root and Callahan (2000) conducted a multisite study of the effects of service-learning in teacher education, examining a number of outcomes, including a present and possible self as a prosocial individual. On a scale developed by the authors, subjects reported their self-perceptions of four dimensions associated with prosocial development: empathy, perspective taking, social responsibility, and generosity. Root and Callahan found that candidates involved in service-learning made significant gains on all four dimensions of the prosocial present self but showed no significant increases on any dimensions of the possible prosocial self.

PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDES AND DISPOSITIONS

Three studies have examined the effects of service-learning on candidates' commitment to teaching. Flippo, Hetzel, Gribonski, and Armstrong (1993) and Green and his colleagues (1994) assessed the effects of tutoring experiences on preservice teachers' commitment to teaching. Root and Callahan also measured commitment to teaching in their multisite study. Flippo and colleagues found an increase in commitment to teaching among tutoring participants, while Green and colleagues found that tutors were more likely to retain their commitment to teaching than students in a traditional introductory education course. In contrast, Root and Callahan (2000) found no significant overall effects for service-learning on commitment to teaching.

TEACHER EFFICACY

Teacher efficacy refers to a teacher's belief in his or her ability to positively influence students' achievement. Factor analyses (e.g., Ashton & Webb, 1986) have yielded two independent dimensions of efficacy: teaching efficacy, or teachers' beliefs in the ability of teachers in general to positively impact student learning, and personal teaching efficacy, or a teacher's belief that he or she personally has the ability to produce achievement. Studies have shown associations between teacher efficacy and several important educational outcomes, including student achievement, teachers' use of innovative classroom methods, classroom management strategies, and teachers' use of effective teaching behaviors (Armor, Greene, & Loewen, 1988; Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zeelman, 1977; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Employing a modification of a scale developed by Woolfolk and Hoy (1990), Root and Batchelder (1994) found no impact for a participation

in a child advocacy project on either teaching efficacy or personal teaching efficacy. In their study, Root and Callahan used a measure based on a Rand study of teacher efficacy (Armor et al., 1988). They found no significant effects for service-learning on either teaching or personal teaching efficacy.

ATTITUDES TOWARD DIVERSITY

A number of authors have proposed that service-learning can support the acquisition of effective multicultural teaching. Advocates argue that service in diverse communities can familiarize preservice teachers with families and children in contexts outside of school and provide them with the skills needed for effective community collaboration. Community service with diverse individuals is also believed to stimulate empathy, critical consciousness of the structural causes of inequity, and commitment to social change.

Investigations of service-learning impacts on competencies needed for multicultural teaching have obtained support for several of these claims. For example, several studies show that candidates who complete service with ethnically and economically diverse individuals experience increased awareness of diversity issues and reduced stereotyping (Beyer, 1997; Siegel, 1994; Vadeboncoeur et al., 1995; Tellez, Hlebowitsh, Cohen, & Norwood, 1995; Boyle-Baise, 1998; Potthoff et al., 2000). Majority candidates who participate in service experiences also become more aware of their majority privilege and less inclined to attribute problems associated with poverty and discrimination to internal, personal failings (Siegel, 1994; Tellez et al., 1995; Vadeboncoeur et al., 1995; Grady, 1997; Boyle-Baise, 1998). Participants in service-learning with multicultural populations appear to revise their attitudes toward multicultural teaching, becoming more aware of the need for multicultural curricula and teaching strategies adapted to diverse youth (Siegel, 1994; Boyle-Baise, 1998). Tellez and his colleagues (1995) also found that preservice teachers gain a greater commitment to working with urban youth.

Although studies have demonstrated positive effects for service-learning on outcomes such as sensitivity to diversity, they have not found a radically altered awareness of the structural origins of social problems or increased commitment to altering these factors among participants. For example, Boyle-Baise (1998) and Grady (1997) found only partial revision of students' stereotypes of diverse individuals as a result of service-learning. Similarly, Vadeboncoeur and colleagues (1995) found that,

although participants in service with diverse populations engaged in more complex discussion of issues such as racism and became less apt to attribute social problems to individual shortcomings, they did not report an increased commitment to acting as agents of social justice.

MORAL DEVELOPMENT

One rationale for including service-learning in teacher preparation is that such activities may strengthen teachers' moral development. Several authors (Goodlad, Soder, & Sirotnik, 1990; Bull, 1993; Beyer, 1997) have decried the neglect of moral education in traditional teacher education. As Beyer (1997) notes, "When teacher educators refrain from helping prospective teachers think through the moral dimensions of classroom teaching, they . . . deny teachers' moral responsibility and agency" (p. 247).

AWARENESS OF ETHICAL TENSIONS IN TEACHING

One potential benefit of experience in community service and social activism is that it can enhance teachers' awareness of the ethical and political contexts in which their decisions are embedded.

Donahue (1999) conducted a case study of four student teachers whose service-learning project was to write P-12 curricula for community organizations with a "history of advocacy for addressing the causes of social injustice." Donahue sought to identify ethical and political concerns identified by candidates in the process of writing curricula. Based on interviews, reflective writings, and other sources, he determined that preservice teachers became more aware of the moral and political tensions involved in teaching as a result of the project. Specifically, the project stimulated student teachers to examine the potential risks of politically controversial topics, the "ethical role of the teacher in addressing moral and political issues through curriculum" (p. 692), and the teacher's right to assign specific service activities—the "boundaries of service" (p. 692).

AN ETHIC OF CARE

In addition to enhancing candidates' awareness of ethical dilemmas associated with teaching, service-learning may also strengthen their ethic of care. Many educators argue that the social forces impinging on children today lend new urgency to the responsibility of teachers and schools to demonstrate care.

The concept of an ethic of care is derived from Noddings's care theory (1988, 1993). In care theory, the primary moral value is not duty but the "love and natural inclination" (Noddings, 1988, p. 219) that flow out of a caring relationship. While each caring relation is unique and imposes its own demands on participants, the paradigmatic caring relation is the mother-child relationship. According to Noddings, teachers guided by an ethic of care are concerned not only with their students' cognitive development but also with their growth as "acceptable persons."

Three studies have focused specifically on the effects of service-learning on the development of preservice teachers' ethic of care. Flippo and colleagues (1993) found that education students who participated in a tutoring project showed increased compassion and concern for others. Potthoff and others (2000) examined the effects of a service-learning experience on candidates' knowledge, skill, and attitudinal development as measured by preservice teachers', faculties', and community members' perceptions. Results showed that overall candidates were perceived to have achieved "definite to significant growth" on two outcomes associated with an ethic of care: "warmth and caring" and "willingness to serve others."

Root and Batchelder (1994) examined the influence of service-learning on three measures believed to reflect an ethic of care: students' cognitive responses to a social problem involving young people, teacher efficacy, and orientation toward pupil control. They found that service-learning students made significantly greater gains than comparison students in the complexity of thinking in response to a social problem of childhood. There were no significant effects for service-learning on either teaching efficacy or personal teaching efficacy or attitudes toward pupil control, however.

SERVICE-LEARNING PRACTICE

One critical question in the research on service-learning in teacher education has concerned the types of experiences that prepare teachers to implement service-learning in their own practice. One investigation that addressed this question was conducted by George et al. (1995). Her study examined an early model of Seattle University's MIT (Masters of Arts in Teaching) service-learning program. In this program, MIT students completed a year-long service-learning experience in which they learned the principles of service-learning and performed 25 hours of service-learning in a human service agency. Students then presented the results of their service

experiences at a Community Internship Conference. George et al. (1995) examined the effects of this project on graduates' attitudes toward and implementation of service-learning during their first year of teaching. Graduates from an MIT program with no service-learning component served as the control group. George found no significant differences between graduates of the service-learning program and those in the control group in the percentage (approximately 25%) who implemented service-learning in their first year of teaching. Teachers in both groups cited the extreme time demands of the first year of teaching as reasons for their inability to include service-learning in their curricula. Seattle University's graduates expressed a need for service-learning training focused specifically on classroom strategies associated with service-learning.

Wade et al. (1999) surveyed beginning teachers who graduated from teacher education programs that had included service-learning. The purposes of the study were to determine whether students were currently using or planned to use service-learning in their practice, and to identify factors that influenced their use of an intent to implement service-learning. In addition, Wade and her colleagues sought to identify qualitative aspects of teachers' experiences with service-learning. Three hundred forty-four full-time teachers who had graduated from four different teacher education institutions with service-learning programs completed a long or short survey on their precollege and college service-learning experiences, their school's service-learning programs, and school and community factors that affected their attempts to implement service-learning.

Analyses of the long surveys indicated that 35% of the respondents had incorporated service-learning as beginning teachers. Factors that predicted current use of service-learning included length of full-time teaching experience, responsibility for implementing a service-learning project during a practicum or student teaching, and the availability of funding for service-learning. Participants' current use of service-learning was also highly correlated with their intent to use service-learning in the future.

Approximately 66% of respondents reported that they were likely or very likely to incorporate service-learning into their classrooms in the future. Intent to use service-learning was significantly predicted by responsibility for planning a service-learning project during teacher training, respondents' positive evaluation of their college service-learning experience, the average class size in the school where respondents taught, prior

implementation of service-learning, months of full-time teaching, the presence of a service-learning program in the respondents' school, and the availability of funding.

MEDIATING VARIABLES

Several investigations of service-learning in P-12 and higher education have confirmed the importance of characteristics of students, programs, and service experiences in mediating the outcomes of service-learning (c.g., Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Root & Batchelder, 1994; Eyler & Giles, 1999). In research on service-learning in teacher education, however, only a few studies have included potential mediators in their analyses. Categories of mediating variables that have been assessed include candidates' characteristics and aspects of candidates' service-learning experiences.

EFFECTS OF CANDIDATES' CHARACTERISTICS

Root and Callahan (2000) found relationships between demographic characteristics of candidates, e.g., age, ethnicity, social class, and several dependent variables. While their results are too extensive to report in their entirety here, they found associations between prior service experience and some outcomes. Students who had a more extensive history of high school service showed greater gains in their self-schema as a prosocial person and in their attitudes toward diversity than others.

EFFECTS OF CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SERVICE-LEARNING EXPERIENCE

Potthoff and colleagues (2000) and Root and Callahan (2000) have examined the influence of several aspects of candidates' service-learning experiences, including the population served, quality of the service-learning experience, perceived support during the experience, reflection, and whether the candidate assisted a P-12 teacher with a service-learning project.

Root and Callahan found that the quality of the service-learning experience predicted increased commitment to teaching. Additionally, students who felt that they had received more support during service-learning and those who assisted a teacher with a service-learning project demonstrated greater gains in teaching efficacy than others. Both Root and Callahan and Potthoff and his colleagues found significant effects as a result of population served. Potthoff et al. found that preservice teachers who were placed with at-risk youth were more likely than others to

support increased understanding of the effects of the environment and risk factors on development. Those who had worked with disabled students were more likely to indicate that they had a better understanding of the relationships between behavior and learning and the effects of the environment on development. Root and Callahan found that students whose service had involved children of adolescents or ill or disabled adults made greater gains in their self-schema and future self as empathic persons. Involvement with ill or disabled adults also significantly predicted candidates' intent to personally participate in service and to use service activities when they entered the teaching profession.

Root and Callahan found that students who engaged in more reflection during their service-learning experience (through readings and journal keeping) demonstrated greater gains than others in their self-schema as prosocial individuals and intent to participate in community service. Finally, in their study, assisting a P-12 teacher with a service-learning project significantly predicted acceptance of diversity and intent to use service-learning in the candidate's own teaching.

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CHAPTER 7

CAPTURING THE POWER OF SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION THROUGH PORTRAITURE

■ LISSA SOEP AND DON HILL

Sociologist Sara Lawrence-Lightfoot (1983) introduced a groundbreaking mode of inquiry in her book, *The Good High School*. The research methodology she pioneered in that volume blended the social scientist's concern for rigor and evidence with aesthetic sensibilities, including attentiveness to themes, imagery, and narrative flow. Calling the approach "portraiture," she began the book by describing different times in her life when she has been the subject of a painted portrait. Lawrence-Lightfoot talked about the sittings she endured, her interactions with the different artists, what it felt like to see the finished images that captured who she was without reflecting her exactly.

Early in 1999, we at Stanford University's Service Learning 2000 Center facilitated a workshop on portraiture as a method to document and promote service-learning in teacher education. To open the session, we wanted to replicate the experience Lawrence-Lightfoot described. So we began with a contour drawing exercise. Participants paired off and took turns drawing and sitting for 2-minute poses. Afterward, we followed good service-learning practice and reflected (National Center for Service-Learning in Early Adolescence, 1991). Some found it awkward to stare at another person so intently. Others relished the chance to look. One man wished he could capture the subtle twist of his partner's smile but knew he lacked technique. The only person who drew her subject in profile explained that she chose an angle she could handle rather than try to depict the complicated planes of a face seen in full. Those of us in the room with art experience appreciated the high-quality pens, knowing that good tools make a big difference.

Connections between the process of drawing portraits of individuals and writing portraits of service-learning programs surfaced in our dis-

cussion: the challenge of looking with respect, the desire to capture telling detail, the struggle to develop technique, the choice of how to frame the subject, the need for effective tools. Also out of that discussion came agreement that portraiture constitutes a powerful resource for service-learning educators.

We begin this chapter with an excerpt from a portrait of service-learning in a California middle school. This piece resulted from a project initiated by Service Learning 2000 Center in 1994 to produce in-depth, complex descriptions of actual service-learning programs in P-12 schools (Soep, Pope, Batenburg, Addison-Jacobson, & Hill, 1994; Pope, Batenburg, Intrator, Verducci, & Hill, 1998). In 1999, we revisited portraiture, this time by designing an ongoing process for teacher education teams from six colleges and universities to portray their efforts to implement service-learning. The workshop that began with the contour drawing launched this second portrait project. In the P-12 study, Service Learning 2000 Center researchers made repeated visits to schools to observe activities, conduct interviews, and gather written materials on unfolding service-learning programs. The teacher education project is different in that we are facilitating the efforts of service-learning educators to portray their own practice. The portrait writers will build on action research data that they have already collected on their implementation efforts supported by a grant from the Corporation for National Service.

In this chapter, we use examples from our P-12 and teacher education projects to describe portraiture as a research methodology and to outline steps you can take to produce portraits of your own work. Data for this chapter derive from Soep's training in portraiture beginning in 1991, Hill's nine years in the service-learning field, and our collaborative efforts since 1994 to use portraiture to enhance and disseminate service-learning efforts. What we offer in this chapter draws heavily on *The Art and Science of Portraiture* (1998), a treatise that has expanded the methodology of portraiture by developing a structured process that groups of researchers can use to portray educational experience (Davis, Soep, Maira, Remba, & Putnoi, 1993). Davis's method of collaborative inquiry guided our approach, and the information in this chapter draws heavily from the material in that volume.

A PORTRAIT EXCERPT: KENNEDY MIDDLE SCHOOL PROJECT

Three people stand on a corner of Martin Luther King Avenue, waiting for a bus. Instead of looking impatiently down the street to see if the bus is coming, they have their backs to the traffic and are watching the scene in front of them with obvious fascination. In this most urban spot-amid the noise, the traffic, and the encampments of homeless people-20 sixth graders are working in a beautiful garden.

They are everywhere in the garden at once: digging a trench for an underground watering system, picking flowers for their teachers, collecting trash, weeding, deadheading roses, pushing, yelling, laughing, shouting directions. Above them on the front of their school is a fiery red painting of a phoenix, the mythical symbol of regeneration and rebirth. The three adults waiting for the bus look stunned. Perhaps they are noticing the beauty of the garden in such an unlikely place and the hard work and exhilaration of young people about whom they have heard so many negative things. What the bus riders don't know is that the phoenix is an apt symbol for the regeneration of this little plot of land and for the lives of the young people and adults who nurture it.

"This was just dirt. Dry, dead dirt. It was an ugly dirt parking lot," said Rebecca, a teacher, sweeping her hand from one side of the garden to the other. "For years, I literally used to park my truck right here," she says with a laugh, pointing to a cluster of cosmos. The garden's former state as an ugly and lifeless parking lot is a favorite theme of the volunteers and teachers who have worked to reclaim the front of Robert F. Kennedy Middle School from being what many called, "the eyesore of Martin Luther King Avenue."

It turns out that the flower garden visible from the street is only part of the garden project. Go through the iron gate into the school yard, and there are terraces lined with old tires being used as planters. There are wheelbarrows, scores of shovels, and a mountain of topsoil. The students proudly show off huge wooden boxes that contain thousands of worms used for man-

ufacturing compost. Inside a little courtyard, there are cold frames for growing tender vegetables and several hutches of rabbits. In a corner is a student-built pond complete with fish and a motorized pump. The garden project is enormous, and it exists in an urban school on an intensely busy street (Pope et al., 1998, pp. 3-4).

WHAT IS PORTRAITURE AND WHAT CAN IT OFFER TO SERVICE-LEARNING?

These first several paragraphs of a service-learning portrait give a sense of how the methodology can manifest itself in words. As evident in this passage, portraiture is a qualitative research methodology not only in the typical sense, as contrasted with quantitative approaches, but in the deeper sense that portraits attend to qualities of the subject being portrayed. (While this methodology focuses on qualities of human experience, quantitative data can be and often are included in portraiture narratives.) What was it like to come upon the Kennedy Middle School garden project for the first time? How did the kids respond when a huge pile of raw compost was dumped on the yard? What happens on days when the students would rather chat and flirt and hassle one another than pull weeds? Portraiture features these kinds of stories—the subtle details and resonant themes that can get lost in bulleted lists of standard evaluation reports. The narrative begins, as it does in the garden project example, with a setting of the scene; the reader encounters the site of the study from the outside in—a picture of the geographic, demographic, and ideological setting that helps shape the experiences portrayed. Portraiture makes no attempt to present these experiences through the anonymous, disembodied voice typically associated with research documents. The writer is present in portraiture, in every detail included and omitted, in the themes explored, and sometimes (but not always) in first-person accounts that run through the narrative. The aim of portraiture is not to expose pathology or produce recipes for success but to present a subject in such a way that those portrayed can recognize themselves in the account (even if they might have told it differently) and readers can learn from the complicated stories told.

Portraiture is especially well suited to our field in light of persistent complaints about the absence of well written descriptions of service-learning.

ing models. The methodology appealed to participants in our teacher education workshop for a number of reasons. It gave them tools to capture and convey how service-learning played out in real settings, revealing tensions, effective strategies, and daunting dilemmas. They wanted to produce narratives that would invite readers to imagine the experiences described from the point of view of those actually involved. As faculty members with joint commitments to teaching and research, they could use portraiture to integrate these responsibilities, which can otherwise be at odds. Here was a way for them to generate a significant research agenda while deepening their own teaching practice.

HOW DO YOU WRITE A PORTRAIT?

Like any research project, the first step in portraiture is to devise a guiding question that limits the scope of your inquiry and keeps you focused on an area worthy of and suited to study (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1998). What do you want to figure out by doing this research, and what do you want others to learn from reading about it? A guiding question is genuine; that is, you don't already know the answer to it. It is study-able, meaning you can identify indicators of the issues you raise. And it is useful; that is, answers to it will contribute significantly to the field. Depending on your particular interests, you might raise a question centered on institutional, pedagogical, ethical, or political issues relevant to service-learning. Our middle school portraits focused on the question, "What are the strategies and challenges of integrating service-learning into academic curricula?" The teacher educators wanted to know how service-learning affects the reaching and learning of program participants in a teacher education program.

Selecting a guiding question situates your work within a broader universe of concern and body of existing research. In our P-12 project, we opted to focus on curriculum integration because we knew from experience and reviews of literature that this challenge constituted a persistent stumbling block for service-learning educators. The portraits revealed effective strategies and common missteps with a level of nuance, complexity, and humanity not normally achieved in more traditional research reports.

In addition to placing your work in the field, the guiding question indicates what terms you need to define before you begin. Given the question they devised, the teacher educators at our workshop will need

to clarify what counts as service-learning at their sites, identify the various ways that teaching and learning manifest themselves, and distinguish the different stakeholders who are program participants. During the workshop, we wrestled with the difficulty of asking an "effect" question without comparative data to show change over time that could indisputably be attributed to service-learning. The portraitists agreed that they would need to address this matter directly in the introduction to their portrait volume.

Devising a guiding question facilitates the second step of portraiture: identifying the dimensions of your subject. Lawrence-Lightfoot and Davis (1998) define dimensions as the "preoccupations" you as a researcher bring to the site based on what is known, and what you aim to find out, about your subject and the larger field it represents. These areas are the ones you need to cover in your research—the facets of experience relevant to your guiding question. Given their interest in the influence of service-learning, participants in our teacher education workshop came up with three dimensions to frame their portraits. They based these categories in part on those used by Davis and her colleagues in her own study of educational effectiveness in nontraditional settings (Davis et al., 1993). The dimensions of *teaching* and *learning* included experiences among faculty, preservice teachers, the students the latter taught in P-12 schools, and others touched by the service encounter. *Structure* alluded to the program's organizational configuration and sources of support. *Journey* would draw attention to the origins and future vision of service-learning in the site portrayed. Armed with these dimensions, the workshop participants could return to their sites with a road map for their research. Across these dimensions, they wanted to know about dilemmas, insights, and the relationship between stakeholders' visions and the realities evident in observable action.

Pursuing these interests, the researchers planned to organize their interviews around matters of pedagogy, operation, key historical events, and future expectations. The dimensions helped the researchers identify what activities they need to observe: school of education courses where service-learning is introduced, the classrooms where preservice teachers student teach, actual service encounters, and departmental meetings where faculty discuss service-learning policies and practices. These categories also suggest what additional materials they might

review, especially when they cannot arrange interviews or observations. Teachers' journals, students' essays, even meeting minutes could provide useful data. An additional benefit of developing clear dimensions is the coherence they provide. When working with a team of writers, as is the case in our teacher education portraiture project, common dimensions ensure that individual contributors will cover comparable ground as they conduct and write up their research. This factor is essential for the overall project, which will culminate in a publication that includes both the portraits and a critical analysis of insights gleaned from all projects.

While together we devised a guiding question and a series of dimensions during our portrait planning workshop, it would have been premature to move forward on the third step in producing portraits: developing resonant themes. To use Davis's turn of phrase, dimensions tell you what stories to "listen *for*" in your subject (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1998). Themes emerge out of those stories. In finding out about your dimensions, you discover your themes. Refrains, echoes, or persistent images that you encounter as you conduct research can become themes to help organize your thinking and writing.

Researchers in our middle school portrait project talked to one volunteer teacher at Kennedy School about the challenge of getting students to notice and care for their natural surroundings, especially when much of the nearby built environment was in disrepair. "Why shouldn't they trash these plants," she said, with a shrug of her shoulders.

It's just an inanimate object. But if they plant that plant and they water that plant and they watch that plant grow-then it's no longer just an inanimate object. It's something that they can identify with. And then they can identify with the next tree, and so on. They start to pay attention in a way they never did before. (Pope et al., 1998)

This idea of growing awareness came up repeatedly in the portrait writers' interviews and observations. They noticed and heard testimonials about relationships developing among students through work in the garden and between students and the plants and animals that grew on the land. Teachers at the school described connections between the idea of awareness and a kind of learning that was absent from standard classroom

curricula. And then researchers spoke to another volunteer who credited the head of the garden project for “planting seeds of humanity.” This phrase became one of three themes that carries through in the portrait. The image, framed as a quote from a participant in the portrait site, enabled the writers to discuss matters relevant to different dimensions of the service-learning project while emphasizing a thread that ran through the experience—the idea of a humane education.

It took time for the theme of “planting the seeds of humanity” to emerge for researchers at the Kennedy School. But it can be useful when you actually write your piece to present up front the themes you will develop throughout. Several possible themes may present themselves as you begin to study your portrait site. Jot them down, see if they continue to arise in different forms, and consider whether they will help you tell the story. And ask teachers, students, and other relevant participants at your site whether they make sense and ring true. It is critical in this process to avoid creating false coherence around your themes. “Dissonant strains”—those jarring observations or citations that run counter to what you’ve been noticing to date—can be extremely telling (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1998). Paradoxically, themes enable you to reveal contradiction. Participants in our portraiture workshop argued that contradictions, against the backdrop of apparent program integrity, can be the most useful contributions to service-learning research and practice.

Portraits of service-learning guided by real questions, framed by dimensions, and told through resonant themes (with dissonant strains) have the potential to uncover new insights for researchers, subjects, and readers. Portraits carry the voices of multiple participants in various positions in the site portrayed, along with the voice of the writer telling the story. They feature significant description without descending into minutia; every detail worth inclusion contributes to the emerging narrative. They are informed by varied sources of data, “triangulated” in a way that reveals convergence (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1998). And they appeal to readers who might overlook the kinds of research reports that normally come across their desks. It is this last point that drives the overall project at Stanford. Honest, vivid portraits of service-learning in teacher education are needed if this powerful teaching strategy is to have a chance at earning a permanent place in American education.

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PROJECT S.A.L.U.T.E.: SERVICE AND LEARNING IN URBAN TEACHER EDUCATION

■ DEBORAH C. ALLEN-CAMPBELL AND KRISTIN BRANNON

Service-learning has become a common teaching method that is being incorporated into teacher education programs across the country. In an effort to introduce service-learning to the preservice teachers at the University of Denver, a faculty member created Project S.A.L.U.T.E. (Service And Learning in Urban Teacher Education), an extracurricular service-learning program. Project S.A.L.U.T.E. was designed with the strong belief that developing the capacity to teach in urban settings must include serious investigation into and interaction with the lives of children and their families outside school (Cutforth, 1996).

Project S.A.L.U.T.E. supplements and enhances the weekly classroom observation of students by further exposing preservice teachers to the cultures and everyday realities that they will eventually meet in their teaching careers. This program is unique in that the service-learning component exists on two levels: (a) preservice teachers' service-learning projects are focused on providing the elementary students with an educationally focused after-school program, and (b) the elementary students generate service-learning projects to benefit their school's community. The focus of this chapter is on the first of these two levels and the theme that emerged from the study: the need for structure in service-learning programs.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

Project S.A.L.U.T.E. is a voluntary after-school program that brings together elementary-age students from a local urban elementary school and graduate students enrolled in the teacher education program at the University of Denver to engage in service-learning projects. The program meets one day a week for three hours from September through March. The first two hours of each evening are designed for the preservice teachers and the elementary students to design and implement service-learning projects. After the students are dismissed, the preservice teachers engage

in a one-hour school/community seminar. This seminar has two goals: (a) to allow preservice teachers an opportunity to reflect on their experiences with their service-learning projects and (b) to educate the preservice teachers on effective strategies and background information in working with urban schools. Aside from the time spent at the elementary school, the preservice teachers also commit to 3 hours per week of planning time.

METHODS

Practitioner research, a form of action research, was the approach used in this study. As described by Bogdan and Biklen (1998), practitioner research is initiated to explore ways to create a more effective learning environment. To reach this goal, the investigator, a practitioner in or closely related to the environment, studies the learning environment through qualitative methods to gather information. After analyzing the data, the investigator offers suggestions to make the environment more effective. Because it was the first year of Project S.A.L.U.T.E., it is both logical and necessary to examine the effectiveness of the program.

SAMPLE

Participants in this study consisted of the 11 preservice teachers who volunteered for Project S.A.L.U.T.E. during its first year of implementation. Nine of the teachers worked in the program for the entire seven months, and two joined the program in January after becoming intrigued by comments made by the original nine participants during class discussions. The one African American and ten Caucasian participants were between the ages of 23 and 27. There were three men and eight women. Four of the preservice teachers were pursuing secondary teaching licenses, and seven were pursuing elementary teaching licenses. None of the teachers had any prior experience with service-learning.

Overseeing the work of the preservice teachers were four program staff members, including one university faculty member, one graduate student, and two classroom teachers. The staff members were responsible for providing feedback to the preservice teachers, collecting necessary materials, and communicating with parents, school staff, community members, and preservice teachers. In addition, the graduate student (the first author of this chapter) was asked to conduct this study and offer suggestions for the following year.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Data were collected during the course of the first year of Project S.A.L.U.T.E. Observation notes were taken during the work sessions with elementary students, the school/community seminars, and staff meetings. Surveys, containing ten open-ended items, were mailed to all preservice teachers after the program had ended for the year (seven were returned). Semistructured telephone interviews were conducted with three preservice teachers as a follow-up to the surveys.

Data were analyzed over the course of the study. Analytic memos were generated bimonthly (Ely, Anzul, Friedman, Garner, & Steinvertz, 1991). Observation notes were reviewed several times and emerging themes developed that contributed to the development of the survey. After looking for evidence in the survey data to support and/or contradict the themes developed from the observation notes, a follow-up interview was conducted with three preservice teachers to further investigate the themes.

FINDINGS

Project S.A.L.U.T.E., with its many participants and projects, offers numerous angles from which to reflect, generating various reasonable themes. For the purpose of this chapter, however, I will discuss only one: the need for structure as service-learning projects are designed and implemented.

When the program began, the preservice teachers and elementary students were divided into three groups to plan and implement at least one service-learning project. The only guidelines imposed on the preservice teachers and students were that the projects had to be inspired by the students and address a need in the community. Each group began developing service-learning projects by generating a list of project ideas. The ideas the students generated, containing 45 items in all, can best be summarized in four themes: (a) planting new garden areas in various locations around the school and other nearby locations, (b) creating new opportunities for community children to become involved in recreational activities, (c) improving the school grounds, and (d) reducing criminal behaviors in the community. Most of the ideas were grand and took a great deal of time and creativity to turn into manageable projects. After five weeks of discussion among the teachers, students, staff members, and school district personnel, five projects emerged as the foci for the year (see Table 1).

TABLE 1. DESCRIPTION OF SERVICE-LEARNING PROJECTS

PROJECT	PROJECT OBJECTIVE
Reading Corner	To design and build a structure for the library where students can go to cuddle up with a book. The students felt that their school library did not have a comfortable area that encouraged children to read for pleasure.
Gardening	To beautify the school grounds by creating an exterior garden and two planter boxes for classrooms.
Video, Quilt, and Yearbook	To create a video documentary of the program and school, to develop a yearbook of their group, to sew and decorate a quilt honoring the school staff, faculty, and students.

On numerous occasions, the preservice teachers commented on the frustration they felt when trying to define boundaries for their developing projects. One teacher stated, "At the beginning I thought it would be cool to create a project with students. I realized later that we were far too democratic in choosing projects. It would be much better if there were a focus at the beginning and the [preservice] teachers and students create projects within that focus." Another stated, "We spent much time figuring out what kind of community projects we wanted to do and the kids got bored." It became evident through the comments and reflections of the preservice teachers that they needed a structure to work within to be able to identify, design, and implement service-learning projects with confidence and success.

Just as some form of structure is often an essential ingredient for an educational environment to be successful for children, so it is for adults. The thought of having complete freedom to design and implement a service-learning project was very appealing to many of the teachers, particularly because they could not have been assured of any such freedom in their teacher education program. This freedom, however appealing it might seem, is not always appropriate when the preservice teacher lacks the experience and training necessary to develop such a complex project.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE IMPLEMENTATION

This study has brought to light the importance of structure in a service-learning program, resulting in one key suggestion for the second year of Project S.A.L.U.T.E. Giving the students and preservice teachers the opportunity to design any service-learning project they wished became incredibly overwhelming. Based on recommendations offered by both

preservice teachers and staff members, Project S.A.L.U.T.E. will organize its service-learning projects around one theme. The theme will be determined in a brainstorming session between school and project staff members (because of time constraints, the preservice teachers will not be able to participate in this process). This collaborative process will help future preservice teachers to focus on the broad needs of the school community (and/or the greater community) from the start of the year.

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CHAPTER 9

SERVICE-LEARNING FOR TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS IN RURAL AREAS

■ TERESA M. DAVIS, ANNE BIANCHI, AND GERALD H. MARING

The purpose of this chapter is to show how two universities in rural areas have developed teacher preparation programs that use service-learning. Washington State University (WSU-Pullman) in eastern Washington and California State University-Chico in northeastern California have each developed program approaches to service-learning integration. This chapter presents trends and challenges of rural settings and particular aspects of teaching service-learning pedagogy that are influenced by the characteristics of the rural setting. The chapter also describes successful practices for service-learning and concludes with a discussion of major challenges facing the two universities during the next five years.

Throughout the United States, many universities responsible for the preparation of teachers are located in rural areas. It has been reported that of the 3,000 counties in the United States, 75% are rural (Ghelfi in Harmon, 1996). The U.S. Census Bureau defines a rural community as having a population of 2,500 or fewer. Typical challenges include lack of financial, human, and technical resources, isolation, and limited social services. Communities with populations larger than 2,500 but in remote and isolated locations face similar obstacles.

While these challenges may be viewed as limitations for preservice teachers engaging in service-learning, teacher candidates at the same time experience the benefits of rural communities, including the ethic of "neighbor helping neighbor." For example, there is a good chance that school employees are related or know fellow townspeople who could be contacted for various service projects. Community leaders can be contacted more easily in rural areas and usually welcome service ideas and activities related to the schools. University teacher education programs located in rural areas need to consider the particular economic, geographic, social, and cultural conditions of that area as part of the preparation provided to preservice teachers (Parsons, 1993).

CURRENT TRENDS AND CHALLENGES IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

Rural regions have distinct features and challenges that influence the lives of their citizens. Teacher education faculty should become familiar with the particular issues of their local rural region to better facilitate teacher candidates in their service-learning projects. The trends and issues presented here typify many of the kinds of issues all rural communities face.

CURRENT TRENDS

A general deterioration is occurring in many of the qualities of rural life, including access to services and education, scarce financial resources, increased human needs, and increased unemployment. In rural America, unemployment rates are 50% above national rates, depression among rural adolescents is twice the national average, and rural residents exhibit increased rates of alcohol abuse (Parsons, 1993). A study by the National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse at Columbia University, based largely on 1999 data, found that illegal drug use among adolescents in small-town rural America is reaching alarming proportions.

In California, families receiving public assistance allowances are moving from urban areas to rural communities where the cost of living is substantially lower and subsistence allowances garner more. Industries such as food processing plants in rural areas are often partially dependent on semiskilled or unskilled laborers and provide employment. This migration places a never-before-experienced burden on rural communities and their educational systems to become more responsive to issues of poverty, substance abuse, and medical need. Yet at the same time, local government economic crises have precipitated layoffs in regional law enforcement, child protection, mental health, and drug and alcohol services.

The semi- or unskilled laborers living in rural communities are often immigrants or members of culturally and linguistically diverse groups, which is bringing about a rapid change in school demography. The vast 14-county service region of CSU-Chico, for example, includes six counties that are state immigration centers for Hmong and Meo first-generation families and two that include major American Indian reservations. The increasing diversity of rural school children is often in direct contrast to predominantly White and monolingual teachers employed in those districts (Stern, 1994).

CHALLENGES OF THE RURAL SETTING

Eight characteristics of rural regions may present challenges to university teacher preparation programs preparing candidates in service-learning:

1. Geographic vastness in a service region or state results in long distances and geographical barriers between a campus and surrounding communities.
2. Fewer forms of public transportation may create difficulties in linking students with areas in need of services.
3. Community resources such as nonprofit agencies, recreation centers, technical resources, and social supports are limited and isolated.
4. Economic development is limited, resulting in a lower tax base for schools and community programs.
5. The quality and quantity of educators is below average because of the remote and isolated nature of rural regions.
6. The parochial nature of some rural areas may foster a distrust of persons new to the community.
7. Increased ethnic and linguistic diversity of the student population may be poorly understood by teachers and other school staff.
8. Issues of poverty often accompany traditional rural challenges.

RESPONDING TO TRENDS AND CHALLENGES

In responding to the trends and challenges of rural regions, CSU-Chico conducts needs assessments annually to establish the type of program needed in its 40,000-square-mile rural service area. CSU-Chico, with a student population of more than 15,000, serves a vast rural region that accounts for 25% of the land mass of California and 14.4% of California school districts. Larger than the state of Maine, the region has, on average, 16 persons per square mile.

WSU-Pullman is a rural community of 10,000 residents with a student population of approximately 17,000. One way the teacher preparation faculty responds to the needs of the local communities is by providing specific assignments to preservice candidates that build awareness of the complexities of the rural community and are integral to the successful practice of service-learning.

Another example from Washington State University has been the final service-learning component of a content literacy course that requires students to carry out a service-learning task that is responsive to the local community, for example, creating a pamphlet about nutrition, writing an earthquake sur-

vival kit, writing maps and travel guides for the local community, designing and planting a community vegetable garden, cleaning up graffiti, volunteering at an AIDS hospice, and writing a multicultural math handbook.

Teacher education faculty in rural universities must also recognize that many of the entering students have little or no rural life experience, which often contributes to a lack of understanding of the social, economic, cultural, and educational conditions. Of the 17,000 students at WSU, approximately 60-70% are from urban areas. At CSU-Chico, more than 40% of the student population comes from urban areas such as Los Angeles and the San Francisco Bay Area.

The CSU-Chico Department of Professional Studies in Education is responding to the challenge by providing service-learning experiences in coordination with a school district partner that has been implementing service-learning for 9 years. Teacher candidates attend service-learning seminars and training at the location where many of that district's projects take place.

WSU faces another task because it is a rural school of education that serves as a statewide preservice program and prepares teachers for a variety of urban and rural school settings. WSU-Pullman places preservice teachers in five teaching centers throughout the state that are as far as 375 miles away from the main campus. Communication among teacher education faculty regarding goals and curricular emphases in student teaching assignments is a challenge across such a vast region; in particular, service-learning has been identified as a focus area for faculty and supervisor collaborative planning.

SERVICE-LEARNING GOALS FOR PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

A central goal of teaching the pedagogy of service-learning is for preservice teachers to become new teachers prepared for and enthusiastic about implementing service-learning, whether they will teach in urban or rural, small or large schools. A nationwide Delphi study, *Principles of Good Practice for Service-Learning in Preservice Teacher Education* (Anderson, 1999), is in progress and will provide guidance for teacher education faculty as they articulate their program service-learning goals. The first principle sets the course for the implementation of service-learning in teacher education: "Preservice teachers should be prepared to use service-learning as a pedagogy by participating in service-learning experiences as well as in-class study of principles of good service-learning practice" (Anderson, 1999).

Another important service-learning goal for teacher education programs in rural settings is for candidates to establish a relationship of respect and understanding with a community partner and the P-12 schools. One of the principles of good practice for service-learning in preservice teacher education concerns respectful collaboration: "Collaboration between the teacher education program and P-12 schools and the community should be characterized by reciprocity and mutual respect" (Anderson, 1999).

SERVICE-LEARNING GOALS AT WSU-PULLMAN

At WSU, teacher preparation faculty prepare teacher candidates to recognize that they are not only autonomous individuals but also members of a larger community to which they are accountable. In 1999, faculty extended service-learning integration from the one content literacy course they had used to four other courses in the newly revised core secondary program (i.e., Introduction to Learning and Development; Secondary School Curriculum and Content Literacy Development; Secondary School Instructional and Content Literacy Methods; Family, School, and Community Collaboration). In Introduction to Learning and Development, for example, in cooperation with the Center for Environmental Education and the Community Service-Learning Center, students participate in environmental education programs, working with students in preschool, elementary, middle, or high school on environmental projects to increase awareness of the local environment. Students have opportunities for fieldwork, curriculum development, and/or interaction with teachers and students from area schools. When WSU's elementary certification core of courses is revised in 2001, service-learning will be similarly integrated into a wide variety of courses.

SERVICE-LEARNING GOALS AT CSU-CHICO

At CSU-Chico, the Department of Professional Studies in Education has become a partner in a major P-12 exemplar in rural service-learning, the Los Molinos CalServe Partners in Education (PIE) Program. Los Molinos, with two elementary/middle schools and one high school and a total student population of approximately 700, is located approximately 26 miles north of the CSU-Chico campus. Through the PIE Program, P-12 students and community members participate in 30 major service-learning themes annually based on the needs of the local area, for example, native grass regeneration, wildlife projects, American Indian study, local museum exhibits, and

adopt-a-business projects. One central goal of the service-learning component in the department is to prepare teacher candidates with the skills to use service-learning as an important strategy in their teaching.

Preservice teachers participate in service-learning seminars and school experiences in Los Molinos that are designed collaboratively between the PIE program staff and CSU-Chico teacher education faculty. Many of the teacher candidates who are from Los Angeles or the San Francisco Bay Area arrive in Los Molinos for the first time and are amazed by the characteristics and concerns of the community. This amazement leads to the awareness of how important it is to change perspectives and become responsive to the needs of the students and the community.

An illustration of learning the community's perspective is a service-learning project recently completed by a teacher candidate during a semester of student teaching in a kindergarten in Los Molinos. The kindergarten classroom teacher, who is experienced in teaching service-learning in the primary setting, mentored the candidate. A long-standing service project between this kindergarten teacher and a local bank is a year-long display of kindergarten artwork that changes monthly during the year. As the candidate became familiar with the project, it became clear that this example of cooperation between the school and the community has reciprocal benefits. The bank customer service manager summarized the impact of the project: "The kids come back to look for their artwork, and relatives come into the bank to see the kids' work. The community really looks forward to it."

SUCCESSFUL SERVICE-LEARNING PRACTICES FOR SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION IN RURAL SETTINGS

No two communities are the same, and no two teacher education service-learning programs are the same. Rural communities have individual circumstances, histories, concerns, and priorities. The following guidelines and examples for service-learning practice have been derived from the experiences of teacher education faculty in rural settings.

Practice 1. Extend the teacher education program commitment to service-learning curricula beyond the efforts of one individual.

A program-wide effort must include service-learning components within course work and fieldwork and demands the involvement of several faculties. An ongoing professional development training program in

service-learning is crucial to the development of faculty expertise. State, regional, and national conferences offer training in service-learning and an opportunity for professors to share best practices. It is crucial that administrators and other university support persons be involved in the development and integration of service-learning in the program.

Practice 2. Orient preservice teachers to new community contexts in which they are placed for service-learning experiences.

Teacher preparation faculty must have the commitment and skill required to teach techniques of how to inventory and understand the community and resources. These techniques may include simple activities such as attending local civic events, attending sporting events, shopping in local stores, and talking to community members and students. It is during these experiences that preservice teachers have the opportunity to develop and implement service-learning projects. One technique is to provide candidates with a list of questions that assists them in getting to know the culture and needs of the school and surrounding community. From the answers, they can begin to identify the type of service project that can be developed. At CSU-Chico, for example, questions, based on recommendations from the National Youth Leadership Council, covered preparation for service-learning (What are the responsibilities of the actual service-learning work? What are important social or contextual issues related to the service?), meaningful service (What is the real community need this service is planned around? How are you involving your students in the planning and designing of the service experience?), and structured reflection (What reflection activity will you use before, after, and during the service?).

At CSU-Chico, teacher education candidates designed and implemented integrated academic and service-learning thematic units during their student teaching. For example, third-grade students learned about Hmong culture in a cross-cultural study of the story of Cinderella through reading *Jouanah: A Hmong Cinderella*. Hmong students, who constitute a large proportion of the ethnic minority population of the school, often experience a feeling of isolation at school because their home lives and school lives are so disparate. The third-grade class created a story quilt of *Jouanah: A Hmong Cinderella* and presented it to the school.

Assignments given at WSU offer examples of effective ways to prepare preservice teachers for service-learning. University students engage in

actual service-learning activities to explore and evaluate whether such activities would hold promise when they become teachers. Projects involved Habitat for Humanity, the Literacy Corps, a local food bank, and presentations about motivation to Native American youth.

Practice 3. Provide reflective discussion and learning activities to bridge teacher candidates' prior experience as a learner to the new learning process as a teacher.

Reflective discussion questions might include Who was your favorite teacher? What were his/her characteristics? What was your favorite subject and why? What was the most outstanding school experience you can remember and why?

Practice 4. Teach service-learning as a model strategy by immersing candidates in activities that encourage them to understand differing life perspectives.

Such activities include problem-based learning, role playing, simulation, the viewing of significant service-learning videotapes, and written and oral reflection. The videotapes "Hearts and Minds Engaged" and "Making the Case for Service-Learning" (both available from the National Youth Leadership Council), for example, have been effective in promoting an understanding of service-learning and community context.

Practice 5. Use technology such as a review of Internet Web sites that will assist teacher candidates in learning about successful service-learning practices in other regions of the country.

Since 1996, students and faculty at WSU have constructed and archived instructional units with embedded literacy strategies and service-learning Web pages. Each on-line unit contains nuts-and-bolts considerations and active e-mail comment and question links so that browsers can interact with project developers. Hence, preservice students in rural Pullman can offer their ideas to a broad audience of students, and educators have the benefit of receiving feedback from far beyond eastern Washington.

The CSU-Chico Department of Professional Studies in Education has a Web site titled, "Preparing Teacher Candidates in Service-Learning." Self-directed modules of study with exercises and streamed video offer preservice candidates at any institution a study in service-learning and a format for developing an academic unit with integrated service-learning for P-12

classrooms. Sample units that preservice teachers have taught while student teaching are on the site, which also offers a bulletin board for posting service-learning teaching ideas. The Web site offers more flexibility for updating and revising information and provides for more interactive features.

Practice 6. Instruct teacher candidates in the importance of service-learning as a strategy to develop better futures for rural youth.

Some rural regions of the United States are experiencing a revitalized economy because of the efforts of teachers to create opportunities for youth to serve their communities (Harmon, 1996). Preservice teacher education programs can contribute to this revitalization in exciting ways. Teacher candidates prepared in service-learning pedagogy will be on the forefront of community revitalization and development.

Practice 7. Implement a follow-up survey of preservice program graduates during their first years in the field to determine how influential the preparation program was for new teachers' implementation of service-learning.

CSU-Chico is surveying its prior teacher candidates to determine the extent to which they are implementing service-learning and to determine what barriers might exist that prevent them from using service-learning in P-12 general and special education settings. Gathering data on the long-term effects of preservice teacher preparation in service-learning is critical to continuous program work.

MAJOR CHALLENGES FOR THE NEXT FIVE YEARS

Challenges facing the integration of service-learning in teacher education at both WSU and CSU typify challenges of many universities in rural settings that incorporate service-learning in course work.

Challenge 1. To increase communication and coordination between teacher education faculty members for the purpose of preparing preservice teachers in service-learning.

Universities in rural settings that have faculty and programs spread over vast geographic areas need to use technology and continuous planning and communication to optimize the value and uses of strategies like service-learning.

Challenge 2. To establish accessible service-learning resource centers with a focus on preservice teacher education.

A resource center should be available for faculty and teacher candidates that provides guidelines and assistance for understanding service-learning and curriculum models of successful integrated academic/service-learning units. On-line interactive Web sites should be used as one way of effectively providing resources for remote areas.

Challenge 3. To promote service-learning as an important teaching strategy and integrate service-learning strategies into a standards-based education learning environment.

Rigorous content standards and benchmarks are the basis of curricular development in P-12 schools. Preservice programs must provide future teachers with effective models of integrating service-learning in subject matter that are aligned to national, state, and local curriculum content standards. Teaching to standards using service-learning methods should be introduced to local school boards that control the implementation of curricula in school districts.

Challenge 4. To create links with public school partners and assist with staff development in service-learning for classroom teachers who serve as mentors and cooperating teachers for program candidates.

In rural regions, schools where preservice teachers student teach and complete practica may be far from the main university campus. In-service training in service-learning for cooperating teachers is necessary and requires financial and human resources. Collaborative preservice and in-service education programs can enhance the potential for effective service-learning from pre-K through higher education.

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CHAPTER 10

INITIAL SERVICE-LEARNING EXPERIENCE THROUGH THE LENSES OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS

■ KIM FLOTTEMESCH, TUULA HEIDE, MELVIN PEDRAS,
AND GRACE GOC KARP

Service-learning has a long tradition in progressive education. John Dewey (1916/1966) emphasized the need for classroom learning to be given perspective through meaningful practical experience. Through service-learning, students are empowered to use their innate abilities, discover strengths, and develop their thinking skills in a community setting working purposefully to make a difference. Under the supervision of a creative and knowledgeable teacher, this experience should lead students to enhance academic learning and personal development (Alt, 1997).

Although teacher education institutions are increasingly using service-learning, research on the effects of having preservice students conceptualize, develop, and implement service experiences is only beginning (Erickson & Anderson, 1997). Initial research studies have shown that service-learning is a positive teaching strategy stimulating interest in subject matter that would otherwise be difficult for students to internalize. Studies have also shown that this pedagogy can help preservice teachers understand the moral and civic obligations of teaching. According to Erickson and Anderson (1997), these obligations include fostering life-long civic engagement, being able to adapt to the needs of learners with diverse and special needs, and being committed to advocacy for social justice and for children and families.

UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, SERVICE- LEARNING PROJECT

At the University of Idaho, teacher education has drawn heavily from the traditional methods of teaching to prepare future educators. While this approach is not necessarily bad, it may not be the most effective way of preparing education students for service in the public schools. Service-learning is emerging as an effective means of educating future teachers.

With this in mind, the authors have integrated a service-learning component in a first course required of all teacher education majors. This project was started spring 1999 in a course called Diverse Learners in the Schools: Social and Cultural Contexts.

Approximately 250 students have been involved over the course of two semesters with one or more aspects of this project. Research data are being collected to assess the impact and to adjust facets of the program as necessary. Some of the initial findings give us cause for optimism that service-learning will provide teacher education students at the University of Idaho with another viable and exciting pedagogy.

METHOD OF STUDY

Following preservice teachers' involvement in the course service-learning project, they were asked to reflect on this experience in terms of their first impressions of the service-learning project, what was challenging about the experience, what changes they had experienced about themselves, others, and educational issues, and what recommendations they had for future implementation. Researchers using inductive analysis and constant comparison (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) analyzed all responses. First, they separately examined the responses, sorting them into initial categories. Second, they compared categories and inclusion rules and produced a mutually agreed upon set of categories and rules. Third, investigators again separately examined the responses, placing the data into the new set of categories. Finally, the researchers compared their separate categorizations of their responses. Discrepancies between investigators regarding proper categorization of data were discussed until 100 percent agreement was reached.

RESULTS

FIRST IMPRESSIONS

First impressions ranged from being excited, apprehensive, and scared to questioning the value of such a project.

Excitement and apprehension. Preservice teachers felt that the service-learning project would motivate and interest P-12 students. Most preservice teachers were either excited or apprehensive (e.g., scared, nervous, stressed) about doing service-learning, particularly those with no previous service-learning experience.

I thought, “Oh my, I don’t have enough time to think of, plan for, and carry this out!” I have a problem trying to think of something to do in order to bring it up to my mentor teacher. I didn’t have any idea about what kind of options I could do.

My first impression on this service-learning experience was this is going to be fun, but I didn’t think it would be very educational. It was though, and I learned a lot.

I was scared. We were all scared. We weren’t really sure what to expect at the nursing home.

What is the purpose? Some preservice teachers questioned the purpose of the service-learning project and its role in teaching. Some felt that the service-learning project was appropriate for some class settings and not others or were confused as to the function of the service-learning project.

My initial reaction to service-learning, as it was presented in class, was unfavorable. It seems like teachers are trying to stray from traditional learning and teaching styles, which in some cases is okay. However, I feel that service-learning could also be abused by teachers who lack sufficient teaching skills.

My first impression of service-learning was that I would basically be doing everything of whatever the project was going to be. I thought that it would be more of an atmosphere where I would be just teaching or instructing. When I actually did the service-learning, I realized that the whole point of it was to get the students actively involved so that they were almost teaching themselves, with some supervision.

Many preservice teachers were concerned about implementing the service-learning project in their practicum setting; however, despite some apprehensions, their initial impressions were positive.

CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED

Preservice teachers perceived and experienced many challenges at the beginning and throughout the service-learning project. The challenges related to the topic of the service-learning, mentor teacher support, and organization of the project.

Topic of the project. Some preservice teachers had a difficult time thinking of an activity for the service-learning project, as one student noted, "The most challenging part of the project has definitely been the choosing of the topic best suited for the class. I had no idea how to relate the service-learning to physical education."

Mentor teacher support. Preservice teachers had difficulties negotiating time in the classroom with their mentor teacher or obtaining support from them.

I thought the mentor teachers would be more willing to help than they were, and it did not work out as well as I wanted it to.

Organizing it with my mentor teacher [was difficult]. It would be easier if this would have been my actual classroom, and I wouldn't have had to coordinate it with anyone else's schedule or have them agree or disagree with my ideas.

Organization. Planning and organizing the service-learning project in their class was also difficult for many students. "I guess I just kind of expected things to fall together easily. What I found was that putting together a service-learning project requires a lot of time and effort, paperwork, talking to administrators and others, and just plain work."

When the actual project started, all students mentioned the concerns they had with organizing the P-12 students, scheduling and developing class content, managing the actual delivery of the service, and working with the community and agencies in which the service was being delivered.

The most challenging part of this project was actually channeling and directing all of this surprising energy and enthusiasm that the kids had.

... was getting the kids motivated.

... was simply organizing the details and the procedures that I planned to use with the schedules that already existed within the school itself.

... was overcoming my shyness in approaching authority figures.

Most challenges were overcome and these concerns diminished; however, these challenges appeared to produce anxiety throughout the semester.

CHANGES EXPERIENCED BY PRESERVICE TEACHERS

The service-learning project was perceived as producing positive changes for the preservice teachers. Many preservice teachers indicated that the service-learning project helped to reaffirm to them their choice and desire to be in education. They learned more about students and people and about the power of community involvement and cooperation in education.

The chosen profession. The service-learning project had a powerful influence on a number of preservice teachers in reaffirming their beliefs about wanting to be a teacher.

I learned from this experience something I have suspected. . . .
I love to teach! I love giving the students something new to experience and in turn I love learning from them. It is a wonderful renewal. I enjoyed doing something as a community. The whole project had a very uplifting quality.

Teaching. Preservice teachers perceived the value of implementing service-learning projects in their own classes in the future.

Personally I have learned how valuable and important service-learning projects will be to me through my teaching. I enjoy seeing the excitement of new ideas being brought forth by the children and letting them take on challenges. I feel a great deal of pride advising in this method of teaching.

My perspective has changed in a way that makes me want to do more service-learning projects, and how fun they can be to plan, and the good feeling you get when your activity is successfully accomplished.

In addition, preservice teachers learned management skills, adapting and thinking on their feet, the use of different teaching styles, and more about their subject matter.

The most challenging was getting groups of kids to sit down together.

I have learned it is very important to provide every opportunity for your students to learn. Students need to have a variety of methods used.

I learned that I have to think “out of the box” to get ideas for what to do. I am not very creative, but it is something I can learn.

Students. The service-learning fostered positive relationships with P-12 students and increased preservice teachers’ knowledge about P-12 students. “I have learned that I can relate to all types of people and all ages. I have learned that I can forget about myself and focus on others who don’t normally get the attention they need or deserve.”

Expectations about students were low, and the preservice teachers were positively surprised at what their students could do. Many students were surprised at the creativity and responsibility shown by their P-12 students.

I imagined them as ill mannered, but they were not. I saw changed teens that really did care for this project.

Being there for the opening ceremonies changed my perspective on people with special needs because they were so motivated and excited. Often I can have a skewed perspective. I was very thankful for this experience.

Through planning, developing, and teaching content, preservice teachers were able to understand how diverse their students were in terms of attitude, learning, gender issues, and special needs. They also felt that they developed patience and persistence with their students and that they could learn from them.

Student ownership and studentship. Not all service-learning projects were viewed as positive experiences. For example, some preservice teachers felt that the service-learning was perceived negatively by some P-12 students, particularly when little P-12 ownership was developed. Other teachers felt that service-learning projects were not always suitable to certain classes (e.g., depending on the type of students in the class) or for certain subject areas (e.g., physical education) or certain grade levels (kindergarten, first).

I think that if the students understand what is going on, it is best and a worthwhile project; otherwise, I think that the students might be doing a project just to make the teacher look good.

Connections to the community and society. Another outcome of the experience was that preservice teachers came to value the role of community and society in education and for themselves as described by this student.

I think the service-learning project changed my perspective on how caught up we are in the world. When I went into the hospital, it was a really lonely and cold place. This made me really sad. I think more things need to be done for the patients, nursing home included, to brighten up the place. From now on I am going to try and make an attempt to visit at least one hospital a year. I know it is not much, but it is a start.

This project changed my perspective on older people. They are fun. When my grandmother lived with us, she was so depressing and negative; I had a hard time being around her. Being in the home with the students was a positive experience, so I have made a goal to go back to the home, along with two others, a couple of times a month.

I was amazed at how big a difference parents make to children's learning, especially fathers. The students whose parents helped them did really well in the project.

I think we need to start focusing on community improvement in the schools so that children take some pride in ownership.

It changed my perspective on school systems because I think they are not used to doing these kinds of things, and it needs to be implemented more in the curriculum.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE IMPLEMENTATION

Preservice teachers provided many helpful suggestions for changing this service-learning program for future implementation. The recommendations related to peer support, mentor teacher support, and more follow-through of the activities and assessment of student learning.

Preservice teachers felt that doing service-learning in pairs would help to provide peer support in planning, organizing, and implementing projects. They felt that mentor teachers should be more informed and involved. Having topics suggested by the instructors or mentor teachers early in the semester was desired. They made many organizational suggestions related to the management of P-12 students or scheduling of content and community involvement. In addition, they wanted to have

their P-12 students follow up on their service-learning project, for example, go to the bank and see the art displayed, go back and visit the senior citizen center. As students said:

Sometimes the facts stick with a person better if they read them themselves than if someone lectures at them. The kids might also take pride in the assignment if they knew what they wrote would end up in the school curriculum.

A major change suggested was to have the P-12 students do pre- and postassessments of the service-learning. The preservice teachers wanted to know what impact the service-learning had had on their own students.

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CHAPTER 11

EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHER EDUCATION STUDENTS STRENGTHEN THEIR CARING AND COMPETENCE THROUGH SERVICE-LEARNING

■ NANCY K. FREEMAN AND KEVIN J. SWICK

Survey studies and ethnographic reports suggest that teacher education students enhance their personal and professional efficacy through meaningful service-learning (Erickson & Anderson, 1997; Magelssen, 1997; Root & Batchelder, 1994; Waterman, 1997). It has also been noted that service-learning is essential to teacher education students' understanding of caring and their development of caring perspectives and behaviors (Noddings, 1992; Goldstein, 1998; Swick & Brown, 1999). The authors' interest in exploring the potential of service-learning for enhancing the caring competence of early childhood teacher education students prompted them to develop a service-learning component in their respective education courses and to structure the service-learning experiences so that they would have access to journals written by the students and the teachers in classrooms where they served.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine the possible influence of service-learning on early childhood teacher education students' caring competence. The construct of "caring competence" is based on the work of several scholars who have noted that caring is a reciprocal relational process. It involves the individual in intentional helping and nurturing interactions with people, with the environment, and with ideas, habits, and dispositions to care that sustain an individual's concept of being a caring person (Eisenberg, 1992; Freeman, 1997; Goldstein, 1998; Noddings, 1992; Rohner, 1986; Swick & Brown, 1999).

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The context of the service-learning experience involved students in two courses: The Young Child-Behavior and Development in Early Childhood and Family Life in Early Childhood. A total of 44 early child-

hood teacher education students (22 in each course) carried out various service-learning activities. Most of them were assigned to the University of South Carolina's (USC's) Children's Center, a child development center for children 6 months to 5 years. Some students did their service-learning at the Children's Garden (a preschool center for homeless children and their families) or at the Nurturing Center (a center for abusing families who have preschool children).

Over the course of one semester, students completed a minimum of 15 hours of service-learning in the Young Child-Behavior and Development course and a minimum of 25 hours in the Family Life in Early Childhood course. A common theme in both courses is caring, thus the focus on strengthening students' caring competence through service-learning. Students' service-learning took many forms: playing with children, reading to them, completing various caring tasks, working with teachers and parents, and helping out in many other roles.

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION/ANALYSIS

The participating early childhood teacher education students and the teachers at the USC Children's Center with whom they were placed kept written journals on their involvement and their reflections on their involvement. Students recorded events, observations, and reflections about their service-learning regularly throughout the semester. These journals proved to be a key means for students to articulate their perspectives about children's caring and their own growth in strengthening their caring competence, while also giving teachers opportunities to record caring behaviors demonstrated by young children as well as their observations of preservice teachers' personal and professional growth. Data analysis focused on determining thematic patterns revealed in the students' and teachers' journals.

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

STUDENTS' CARING INVOLVEMENT

A review of students' journals suggests they accomplished many tasks: observation (particularly for students who were doing case study assignments), play and other nonformal relationship activities with the children, doing guided learning, such as reading and listening/language activities, monitoring the children's writing in journals, helping out in learn-

ing centers, performing various instructional support tasks for teachers, participating in parent and family involvement events, working with small groups and with individual children, doing snack and lunch duties, working with teachers on planning and development of instructional activities and materials, and many others. Some sample journal entries convey the multifaceted nature of their service involvement:

You have to get to know each baby—build trust with them. I comforted a baby today that one month ago would not come near me.

I read to children daily; today two of them begged for me to read to them too—it made me feel really needed.

I spent most of today with one child. She has been abused and really needs me. We went for a walk and just enjoyed the time together.

The students strengthened their caring and serving perspectives and skills through many different activities with children, staff, and parents. As one student noted in her journal, “I shifted my work each time I was at the Children’s Garden. I realized that by being flexible I was of the most help!” Another student said, “I never had a dull moment; the staff or the children always had needs—I learned to set out mats for napping, help set up for lunch, do ‘dress up’ during play time, comfort a hurt child, and respond to parent questions about how their child’s day went.”

TEACHERS’ OBSERVATIONS ABOUT TEACHER EDUCATION STUDENTS’ CARING AND SERVING

The journals of the classroom teachers at the USC Children’s Center include insights related to the dynamics of caring in these classrooms, and the caring and serving activities of the early childhood teacher education students.

One very powerful facet of these journal entries was evidence of teachers’ efforts to model caring and responsive care giving in all their interactions. One such entry highlights this focus:

We promote “caring” in our classrooms by modeling caring behaviors, telling children caring words to use, and asking them if they would like to help serve snack and lunch. Also, we practice taking care of babies, a plant, and generally practice helping each other in the classroom.

It is also evident that these teachers plan and carry out many serving and caring activities, thus providing the children and the teacher education students with opportunities to develop and enhance their caring and serving skills and perspectives.

Teachers' journal entries provide another dimension demonstrating the value of service-learning in early childhood teacher education. For example, they saw the students as caring role models for the children. They noted how students' helping relations with the children added another source of caring in the children's lives. Very importantly, the teachers observed the students in responsive caregiving roles and noted many areas where the students' service strengthened their caring skills. One teacher noted:

Kim (a S-L student) helped Ned use the bathroom (Ned is being potty trained). She is really patient and talks him through the process, letting Ned know he is just learning and it's okay. Ned gives Kim a big hug.

LEARNING ABOUT CHILDREN'S DEVELOPMENT OF CARING

Participating early childhood teacher education students' journal entries indicate they gained many insights about children's caring and serving. They cited their own interactions with children and staff, parents' relationships with children, and child-child interactions that included the development of caring and serving perspectives and behaviors. In particular, students learned about many facets of children's caring through their direct interactions with them. Some journal entries highlight how the service-learning experience influenced students' ideas about children's caring:

The infants are so responsive; they give you back more love than you could ever give them.

Wow, you learn here everyday. Today I picked up a crying child and comforted her and two other children came and comforted me.

I learned that children at this age (toddlers) love to be hugged and they respond to everything going on in the environment.

The participating students also commented often on the caring relations between children. They were somewhat surprised at the children's caring for each other, apparently in contrast to their preconceptions that

infants, toddlers, and preschool children could be expected to be consistently egocentric (Lillard & Cureton, 1999). One student, for example, noted how the infants responded to each other:

The infants are really developing with one another. One would think that at such a young age they wouldn't show interest in the other children. This is not true; they really show concern for each other with their body movements, their gestures, and their tone of voice.

The students also noted that the children learned their caring from the parents and other caring adults in their lives. Journal entries convey the important message that caring actions by parents and staff, the caring environment at the Children's Center, and the intentional planning of service and caring activities in the center's program all positively influence the children's development of caring.

THE INFLUENCE OF SERVICE-LEARNING ON TEACHER EDUCATION STUDENTS' CARING AND SERVING

The most prevalent journal comments from students were on their personal growth. These students believed their service-learning enhanced their sense of "making a contribution" to others in the community. For some of the students, this was the first time they had experienced the fulfillment of making a difference in a child's life. Students often noted that staff, children, and parents validated them, responding with sincerity to their contributions and thus enhancing their sense of being important in the lives of others. For example, one student noted: "The teachers really appreciate me and it has helped me increase my sense of being an important person." Another student said, "I see how I make a big difference in this room; I am coming back this summer. I love the work and the feedback."

Students believed their caring and nurturing were enhanced. Their journal entries reflect their appreciation for the importance of the caring part of their personalities. One student, for example, said, "I am more nurturing—how can you not be when you care for these little ones and they love you back so much!" Several students said that completing a case study on one child increased their insights into their own personal and professional development, especially in relation to what it takes to be a caring and serving person. Other students commented:

Out of all the things I learned this semester is just how important my caring and loving the children really is. I am more tuned into my caring now.

At first I had some problems changing diapers, but as I gained experience I also came to realize this caring thing is "hands on," not a bunch of words.

Students also felt that they increased their self-confidence. They believed they were more assured of their abilities to relate to children and to respond to the needs of others in various situations. Increased sensitivity to cultural differences, an enhanced sense of community responsibility, and a general awareness of their role in being advocates for children and families were other personal attributes some students felt were strengthened through service-learning.

LESSONS LEARNED ABOUT SERVICE-LEARNING: STUDENT VOICES

Participants in this study also had observations and insights relative to service-learning as it was structured in the courses they took. Their overall evaluation of the service-learning experience was excellent. They felt that service-learning helped them increase their understanding of course concepts, strengthened their academic performance, and supported their career exploration needs. Students did suggest that the service-learning component of this course be advertised in the course bulletin so that they could effectively budget their time as they planned to fulfill course requirements. They also believed that service-learning should be given higher priority in the evaluation of their course performance. In addition, students suggested that service-learning be used in more courses as a means of linking course concepts to important community needs.

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A FRAMEWORK FOR CONCEPTUALIZING AND DOING RESEARCH ON SERVICE-LEARNING IN PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

■ SUE ROOT AND KEVIN J. SWICK

Currently, service-learning is a peripheral element in teacher education with a strong presence in some programs but little or no influence in others. Although research reveals associations between service-learning and candidates' progress toward several goals of teachers preparation (e.g., acceptance of diversity), studies have been limited in both quantity and quality. Investigations of the effects of service-learning in teacher education can provide insights into its meaning, history, status, outcomes, and potential role as a method of preparing teachers. For these insights to be achieved, however, more extensive and higher quality evidence must be obtained. The purpose of this chapter is to articulate a possible agenda for research on service-learning in teacher education.

The chapter is divided into three sections. The first builds on Zeichner's (1999) analysis of strands in contemporary research in teacher education, suggesting strands for future studies of service-learning in teacher education and potential research questions associated with each strand. The second section addresses methodological issues in the study of service-learning in teacher education, and the third outlines ethical guidelines that might undergird future research on service-learning in teacher education.

STRANDS AND QUESTIONS FOR A RESEARCH AGENDA ON SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Zeichner (1999) identified several strands in research on teacher education, including survey research, case studies of teacher education programs, conceptual and historical research, studies on the process of learning to teach, and research on specific instructional strategies and self-studies of teacher educators.

SURVEY RESEARCH

Surveys provide descriptive information about the field of teacher education. Some, such as the RATE studies conducted by AACTE, accumulate data on the national state of teacher preparation, including qualifications of teacher education faculty and characteristics of candidates. Others assess specific types of teacher preparation programs, such as elementary education, or the state of teacher education in a particular region.

The National Service-Learning in Teacher Education Partnership in 1998 conducted a survey on service-learning in teacher education and found that this approach was being used in approximately 200 programs nationwide. Wade et al. (1999) also gathered data on faculty at institutions seeking to integrate service-learning in collaboration with the National Service-Learning in Teacher Education Partnership (NSLTEP). She found that most NSLTEP partners were able to successfully incorporate service-learning and identified as major successes "the implementation of program/course changes, increased collaboration on campus or in the community, perceived positive impact on preservice teachers, and new resources obtained through the partnership" (p. 1.) Obstacles identified by faculty included lack of time, financial constraints, lack of support from colleagues, and competing program initiatives.

Although these surveys have yielded valuable information about the state of service-learning in teacher education, additional surveys are needed to address such questions as:

- What types of teacher education programs and courses include service-learning, and what are the characteristics of candidates being prepared to use this approach?
- What types of service activities are engaging preservice teachers?
- What are the characteristics and qualifications of the faculty who use service-learning?
- How many and what types of partnerships exist between teacher education programs and P-12 sites to prepare preservice teachers to use this approach?
- What resources enhance and sustain the implementation of service-learning in teacher education?

CASE STUDIES OF SPECIFIC PROGRAMS

A second category of research on teacher education is case studies. Case studies are in-depth analyses of specific programs or professional develop-

ment activities within programs. In case studies, researchers use interviews, observation, document analysis, and other methods to create detailed portraits of programs from the perspectives of insiders.

Maloney (1999) conducted a case study of efforts by teacher educators at Western Montana College to organize their elementary methods block around service-learning. Preservice teachers developed and implemented projects with elementary students around the theme of cycles. Elementary students who participated in the project gained increased responsibility and enthusiasm, higher order thinking skills, and the ability to transfer what they had learned in their service-learning experiences to new tasks. Candidates acquired new insights about cooperation and classroom management, as well as a commitment to use service-learning in the future. The professors associated with the block discovered that "using service-learning as the central cohering factor in this demanding semester . . . impacted our students more deeply than previous methodologies we had used" (p. 3).

A need exists for additional case studies, including multisite studies to address questions such as:

- How do the unique characteristics of institutions such as mission, faculty, and location influence how and to what extent an institution adopts service-learning?
- What are the common characteristics of exemplary service-learning programs?
- What are the "stories" of institutions as they seek to integrate service-learning, and their struggles, resources, and strategies used to address these needs?

CONCEPTUAL AND HISTORICAL RESEARCH

Conceptual and historical studies make up a third strand in teacher education research. One focus of conceptual research has been on different models for teacher preparation and their merits and shortcomings. Conceptual work in teacher education has also included critical analyses of commonplace constructs (e.g., reflective teaching) and untested assumptions and "tensions" in the field of teacher education. Finally, conceptual and historical studies have examined the influence of political, economic, and ideological forces on teacher education.

Only one author (Anderson, 2000) has attempted to explore the historical underpinnings of service-learning in teacher education. Little has been written about the ways in which preservice teachers or teacher educators construct the meaning of service-learning, however. The following examples of questions could be considered for conceptual and historical study:

- How is service-learning understood by teacher educators, P-12 teachers, and education students?
- How do faculty, teaching candidates, and teachers understand the relationships between service-learning and similar pedagogies?
- What is the history of the movement to incorporate service-learning in teacher education, and what laws, policies, organizations and other forces have contributed to this movement?
- What is the potential role of service-learning in enabling teacher education programs to prepare teachers to fulfill their responsibilities for democratic socialization?

STUDIES OF LEARNING TO TEACH

A fourth strand of research in teacher education consists of studies of learning to teach. One focus of these investigations has been on teachers' naive beliefs about teaching as well as the influence of features of teacher education programs on these beliefs. In addition, studies of learning to teach have examined the development of expertise in planning, perceptions of classroom events, and classroom management.

Researchers (e.g., Vadeboncoeur, Rahm, Aguilera, & Le Compte, 1995; Siegel, 1994) have found that service-learning can alter preservice teachers' class- and race-based stereotypes and concepts of democracy and racism. No investigations have examined the acquisition of expert schemata for planning and implementing service-learning, however. Questions for such study could include, for example:

- How do teachers become more skilled at conceptualizing fruitful problems for service-learning projects?
- How do novice and expert teachers differ in their planning for service-learning projects, for example, in their ability to align projects with state standards, coplan projects with community members, develop reflection activities, and evaluate student outcomes of service-learning?

- How do teachers become more expert at identifying indicators of project success or failure?

STUDIES OF DIFFERENT INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES AND PROGRAM STRUCTURES

The majority of studies of service-learning in teacher education have been investigations of the effects of this pedagogy on dispositions and skills in preservice teachers. Researchers have described effects of service-learning on a number of outcomes, including commitment to teaching, caring skills, acceptance of diversity, and application of service-learning to practice (Green, Dalton, & Wilson, 1994; Root, 1997; Swick et al., 1999; Siegel, 1994; Vadboncoeur et al., 1995; Wade et al., 1999). Several questions remain, however, regarding the impacts of service-learning on students. For example:

- How does service-learning contribute to candidates' understanding of the constructivist nature of learning?
- How does service-learning enrich preservice teachers' content knowledge?
- What pedagogical skills are strengthened through engagement in service-learning—that is, through planning, implementing, and evaluating a service project or experience with P-12 students?
- How does service-learning influence preservice teachers' understanding of the formal and informal institutions of democratic society, the responsibilities of teachers to educate for participatory citizenship in a multicultural society, and effective strategies for educating for citizenship?
- What effects does service-learning have on the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed for working effectively with families?
- What is the influence of service-learning on skills for using the community as an arena for learning?

In examining outcomes of service-learning, researchers must move beyond the prevailing input-outcome model that has characterized much research on service-learning in teacher education to designs that include contextual variables. Examples of questions researchers might explore with respect to these mediating factors include:

- How do service-learning effects vary depending on the characteristics of preservice teachers, such as age, gender, ethnicity, prior history of service, and family involvement in community service?

- How do different types of service-learning projects, time requirements, placement sites, and recipients of service mediate the effects of service-learning participation?
- What are the effects of different types of reflection and synthesis activities on development through service-learning?
- How do characteristics of the service-learning experience, such as students' autonomy in selecting a service project or relationship with site staff, influence preservice teachers?

These questions pertain mainly to outcomes of course-based service-learning. But research is also needed on the effects of structural characteristics of service-learning programs. Erickson and Anderson (1997) describe multiple ways to include service-learning in teacher preparation programs: infusion in specific courses and practica, development of distinct service-learning courses, and integration throughout the teacher education program. Questions remain, however, regarding the effectiveness of each model and about the interactions between program organization and service-learning. For example:

- What goals of the program can service-learning best support?
- Can service-learning serve as an integrative structure for an entire program, and what benefits and costs might be associated with using service-learning in this manner?
- What are the effects of different models of service-learning in teacher education?

METHODOLOGY

In addition to identifying strands and questions for future study, investigators need to assess the types of methodological approaches employed and the quality of data in research on service-learning in teacher education. Recent research in teacher education has shifted from positivist, quantitative methods to more qualitative approaches. Researchers on service-learning in teacher education have available to them a large number of research approaches to answer a variety of questions, including experiments and quasi-experiments, correlational research, surveys, case studies, philosophical and historical research, and ethnography.

Experiments are undertaken to test a theory about the cause and effect relationship between a treatment and dependent variable(s). The goal of experi-

mental design is to rule out alternative explanations for treatment effects through random assignment to treatment or control group and through statistical controls. Quasi-experiments apply principles of experimental design to naturally existing groups, but because they occur in natural settings, quasi-experiments lack the control provided by random assignment.

In correlational studies, researchers seek to identify relationships between variables in natural settings. Correlational approaches are appropriate when researchers want to study naturally occurring phenomena or when manipulation of variables is impossible. Data obtained in correlational studies can include simple or multivariate correlations and can be submitted to increasingly complex methods of data analysis, ranging from correlational analysis to multiple regression and path analysis.

The purpose of survey research is to allow researchers to draw inferences about the perceptions, beliefs, or characteristics of a population from a sample. Surveys provide descriptive information about "what the people, objects, or institutions in a specified population resemble, think, and believe" (Lee & Yarger, 1996, p. 23). Surveys are efficient and cost-effective but are susceptible to several potential sources of error. "Sampling techniques, sample size, return rate, response bias, and the survey itself" (p. 23) can all limit the validity of survey results.

Yin (1989) defines a case study as an "empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (p. 23). The case study approach is particularly useful in teacher education because of the inherent complexity of the process of teacher preparation. Lee and Yarger (1996) identify three subcategories of case study research: (a) case studies of a particular phenomenon, (b) individual illustration of a pattern of cognitive performance, and (c) narrative inquiry, a recent approach, whose purpose is not theory testing but the articulation of personal experience.

Researchers examining service-learning in teacher education have used a variety of approaches, including quasi-experiments, surveys, and case studies. The knowledge base constructed from these studies is limited, however, for several reasons. First, to date, certain methodological approaches have been confined to particular research questions. For example, researchers have employed quasi-experiments to document impacts of service-learning on aspects of preservice teacher development,

such as academic achievement or social responsibility (Green et al., 1994). The effects of service-learning on faculty have been assessed using survey methodology (e.g., Anderson & Pickeral, 1999), while case studies have mainly (but not exclusively) focused on changes in candidates' attitudes toward cultural and other types of diversity (e.g., Vadeboncoeur et al., 1995). Although research approaches are traditionally linked to the values and goals of researchers (Lee & Yarger, 1996), the result for the field of service-learning in teacher education is a fragmented collection of findings rather than a coherent knowledge base.

A greater concern for the field than the entangling of methods and questions, however, is the quality of extant research. Although validity, reliability, and generalizability are defined and weighted differently in the quantitative and qualitative research communities, they determine the "quality of inquiry and the credibility of knowledge claims" in both and thus are a concern for research on service-learning in teacher education (Lee & Yarger, 1996).

The majority of qualitative and quantitative studies of service-learning in teacher education have had design flaws. In most qualitative investigations, for example, the service-learning instructor has been the sole investigator, responsible both for the administration of measures and data analysis, procedures that permit observer effects and interpretive bias. Additionally, while qualitative studies have used triangulation, many do not report other efforts to increase validity and replicability, such as checking researchers' interpretations with informants. Finally, the majority of qualitative studies fail to provide adequate descriptions of their data analysis procedures.

Quantitative studies of service-learning in teacher education have also demonstrated design flaws. Only one study used random assignment. One quantitative study failed to include a comparison group. Because most quantitative studies have been conducted in a single course by a single instructor, they have failed to control for important characteristics of the class or professor, which could have produced impacts. In most studies, the student has been the unit of analysis; however, research on service-learning in teacher education could also focus on changes in program, faculty, service site, and service recipients, including the students. Finally, in the bulk of quantitative studies, data analyses have focused on global changes in participants before and after the experience and failed to assess the effects of student, program, or service experience characteristics.

Researchers in service-learning on teacher education could take several steps to improve the methodological quality of research on service-learning in teacher education, including:

- *Use a combination of research approaches.* For example, investigators could combine experiments or quasi-experiments with case studies of individual preservice teachers to produce detailed information about the impact of service-learning on candidates' development. Qualitative studies of changes in preservice teachers' beliefs could be integrated with surveys of their later practice to determine the influence of service-learning on beliefs and the relationships between beliefs and practice.
- In qualitative studies, *engage in systematic procedures to check the representativeness of data and the validity of conclusions*, such as triangulation, checking for researcher effects, weighting evidence, and replicating results (Miles & Huberman, 1984).
- In quantitative research, *adopt at least a quasi-experimental design.* Ideally, researchers will also include measures that not only reflect their goals but are also consistent with previous research and represent important outcomes in preservice teacher development. Data analyses in quantitative studies should include student, program, and service experience characteristics.

THE ETHICS OF RESEARCH FOR SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

A third focus for a research agenda concerns the ethics that should undergird research on service-learning in teacher education. According to Howe and Moses (1999), traditional quantitative empirical research is founded in positivism, which asserts the necessity of separating fact from value and views social, moral, or political influences and implications as potential contaminants of research findings. Howe and Moses (1999) note that to the degree that an ethical framework governs quantitative empirical research, it is derived from the Kantian imperative requiring individuals to be treated as ends rather than means. One accepted guideline based on this framework is informed consent—the right of potential participants to be informed of the procedures in a study and to determine whether they wish to participate. Privacy is a second principle protecting individuals in quantitative empirical research and includes anonymity (the right not to disclose

information that would reveal one's identity) and confidentiality (the expectation that personally identifying data will not be disclosed).

Researchers studying service-learning in teacher education should at the least be guided by the principles of informed consent and privacy. Additionally, the consistency between the goals of service-learning and those of care theory and communitarians suggests that they are appropriate frameworks for qualitative investigations of service-learning in teacher education. Given the origins of service-learning in progressivism, however, it seems logical that researchers might also turn to Dewey's writings for values to inform their studies.

Dewey emphasized several values in his writings. One is growth. Garrison (1996) notes that "Growth through freedom, creativity and dialogue was for John Dewey the all inclusive idea, the greatest good" (p. 429). Dewey explained that the virtues of "honesty, industry, temperance, etc.," were of value not as ends in themselves but as aspects of existence, which contribute to growth.

A second value in Dewey's theory is intelligence. To be intelligent, according to Dewey, is to be capable of effective action by systematically applying thought to the challenges of experience. In *How We Think* (1933), Dewey described intelligent thought as progressing from the awareness of a problem to problem analysis, solution generation, anticipation of possible consequences, and implementation of one solution.

A final value for Dewey was democracy. As Brameld (1955) remarks, democracy provides an "outlet for some of the deepest needs of the individual, that is, his need of dignity, respect, association, and responsibility" (p. 118). Dewey viewed democracy as the type of social arrangement most conducive to human growth, stating, "A democracy is more than a form of government; it is primarily a mode of associated living" that fosters growth by requiring each individual to "refer his own action to that of others, and to consider the action of others to give point and direction to his own" (p. 87).

Dewey's theory suggests the following implications for the ethics of research on service-learning in teacher education:

- Researchers should focus on questions that promise to maximize human growth. In addition to research questions, research methods should be chosen that provide the greatest opportunity for growth-for participants, teachers, potential readers, and researchers themselves.

- Researchers studying service-learning in teacher education should focus not on adding to a static knowledge base but on strengthening “intelligence,” the ability of individuals to live experimentally and of democratic societies to solve their problems.
- Research on service-learning should support democratic values. That is, studies should contribute knowledge, which can strengthen the democratic characteristics of societies, and should themselves model democratic practices.

CONCLUSION

Service-learning can stimulate new visions of what and how teacher education can be. Service-learning has the potential to transform teacher preparation in two ways: through the expanded and enriched structure that service-learning offers for the education of teachers, and by engaging teacher educators and “community” as partners in crafting experiences that will lead to improved teacher preparation and stronger schools and communities. For service-learning to become a widely adopted element of teacher education programs, however, research needs to establish its effects. Although a body of investigations on service-learning in teacher education has emerged, researchers can expand its scope by addressing new research strands and questions. Investigators should consider combining methodologies to more broadly capture potential outcomes of service-learning for programs, faculty, recipients of service, and candidates. Researchers need to ensure the validity, reliability, and generalizability of studies through more carefully developed designs, data collection, and analysis techniques. Finally, research on service-learning in teacher education should be grounded in ethical principles consistent with its goals of enhancing growth, social problem solving, and democratic structures, processes, and capacities.

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APPROACHES TO INTEGRATING SERVICE-LEARNING INTO PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

This part of the book presents eleven case examples of how teacher education faculty are integrating service-learning into courses and in some cases, entire programs. It is important to recognize that service-learning can be actualized in many different ways within teacher education and the following cases demonstrate this variety. The cases were selected to represent a diversity of types of institutions (public, private, research, liberal arts) located in various geographic regions of the United States.

The cases are arranged roughly in the order a preservice teacher would take courses in a typical teacher education program. In this way, examples of introductory and foundations courses come first, followed by methods courses. Two cases of program-wide service-learning integration are then presented, and finally, a graduate course is described that focuses specifically on service-learning. Each case includes a description of how service-learning is integrated into a specific course or courses, the role and function of the course within the teacher education program, a rationale for service-learning use, a discussion of how service-learning is implemented and assessed, and a focus on unique features of the course or program.

An effort was made to assist readers in seeing how diverse institutions approach the integration of service-learning and teacher education from distinct perspectives, and how in some cases this integration is a process that grows over time from peripheral service-learning in one course to a systemic redesign of teacher preparation with service-learning at the core. The cases also provide faculty who teach a specific type of course with an example from a similar course in order to stimulate syllabus redesign efforts.

CHAPTER 13

THE ENHANCEMENT OF SERVICE-LEARNING AND EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO

■ GRACE GOC KARP, MELVIN J. PEDRAS, TUULA HEIDE, AND
KIM FLOTTEMESCH

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

The University of Idaho, Division of Teacher Education, is refocusing its teacher certification program to reflect national standards and place P-12 students at the center of preservice learning. Teacher education students will be prepared to meet the needs of students through an inquiry-based program that incorporates self- and learner examination, competent interaction with the knowledge base, habits of skilled inquiry, and professional and leadership development. The integration of service-learning into course work throughout the program will ensure that a community of learners will be developed both in academic settings and in society.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The following goals have been developed to guide the integration of service-learning into the teacher education program at the University of Idaho.

1. Integrate service-learning in all courses of the teacher education program so that preservice teachers have opportunities to gain in-depth understanding and experiences in this pedagogy.
2. Examine the appropriate role of service-learning as pedagogy in the teacher education program. Since this pedagogy is nontraditional, many preservice teachers need to examine this pedagogy in light of their philosophy of teaching.
3. Develop support for service-learning from appropriate internal and external sources. It is critical that students see the teacher education program model total support for this pedagogy, and it also important to involve students in learning ways they can use to acquire support for using this strategy in their own teaching.

4. Increase faculty and preservice teacher awareness of the theoretical basis for service-learning. Everyone needs this foundation so that faculty and students understand the rationale for service-learning.
5. Evaluate the effect of service-learning on preservice teachers, P-12 students, P-12 teachers and administrators, university faculty, and the teacher education program. These evaluations can provide feedback on the efficacy of the program and offer direction for continual refinements.

Eventually service-learning will be integrated through the entire teacher education core sequence required for all majors. Integration will occur in four phases, with each phase incorporating some form of service experience with P-12 students.

1. Gain an understanding of service-learning principles and activities in ED 201, *Diverse Learners in the Schools: Social and Cultural Contexts*.
2. Increase understanding about agencies and about students through service-learning in ED 300, *Human Development, Learning, and Teaching*.
3. Infuse the use of service-learning into curriculum and teaching activities to increase academic knowledge and community development in ED 301, *Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment*.
4. Introduce content-specific, P-12-generated service-learning activities used in teaching and curriculum development in ED 401, *Professional Role Development*, during the internship.

It is hoped that each goal will be addressed through each phase of the integration process.

IMPLEMENTATION

The incorporation and development of service-learning as a viable teaching methodology was initially implemented in all sections of ED 201, *Diverse Students in the Schools: Social and Cultural Contexts*. This course is one of the beginning courses in the teacher preparation program and, for many University of Idaho students, their first exposure as a professional to the field of education. In the service-learning component of the course, students are introduced to the seven elements of quality service-learning (integrated learning, high quality service, student voice, civic responsibility, collaboration, reflection, and evaluation).

Preservice students work with mentor-teachers in field placements in area schools to create and facilitate a service-learning project for the students in their specific classroom or school-wide. Approximately 150 students each semester are involved in this project. To date, well over 300 preservice students have experienced service-learning as a teaching strategy. Throughout the project, students are asked to examine the quality of their project in light of the service-learning principles introduced and their perceptions about service-learning as a viable pedagogy.

Minigrants were used to further motivate and engage preservice teachers (and their collaborating mentor-teachers) in the design and implementation of service-learning. These grants were coordinated and awarded by a community action team in response to proposal requests from the students to support their specific service-learning project. During the first year, 10 \$100 grants were awarded.

To expand faculty understanding about service-learning, instructors teaching core classes have been involved in developing service-learning in each phase. Because core classes are connected to subject matter discipline classes and practica, other faculty has been informed as to how service-learning will be implemented. In addition, a consortium of faculty using service-learning throughout the campus has shared ideas and resources. This approach provides preservice teachers opportunities to explore service-learning (not as a pedagogy) in the undergraduate core curriculum before entering the teacher preparation program.

Because this initial phase lays the foundation for the integration of service-learning, it was imperative to begin to evaluate its efficacy. Thus, preservice teachers were the first group to be evaluated. Preservice teachers were surveyed with regard to their perceptions of previous service-learning experiences, the current project, and their reactions to the current project in relation to gender and grade level differences. The results indicate a very positive response from this initial group of students. Future evaluation will include mentor-teachers, community participants, and faculty.

Placements happen in several school and community contexts, including four public school districts, one religious school, and several community sites. Community sites include a variety of options from Habitat for Humanity to the Moscow Recycling Center to Opportunities Unlimited to Head Start. The partnerships formed by the university, local schools, community agencies, and businesses have been the crucial piece of suc-

cessful service-learning experiences. Preservice teachers have also been able to experience the steps needed to begin, build, and maintain successful partnerships for service-learning activities.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Implementation of service-learning in the initial education core course was an initiative brought about by the restructuring of the Division of Teacher Education. With this movement of change from traditional approaches to teacher education, service-learning found a home in the University of Idaho's College of Education. This teaching methodology sparked great enthusiasm among faculty and students alike. The implementation of this teaching pedagogy along with the incorporation of grant proposal writing gave preservice teachers practical educational experiences. Preservice teachers not only experience a viable teaching methodology through hands-on training but also were made aware of the financial needs of educators and how support for educational projects could be obtained.

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CHAPTER 14

INTEGRATING SERVICE-LEARNING INTO "EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY" AT BALL STATE UNIVERSITY

■ JILL MIELS

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

EDEL 100, Education in a Democratic Society, is the first in a series of six professional education courses for undergraduate elementary teaching majors at Ball State University leading to licensing in the state of Indiana. As the first course taken, EDEL 100 was specifically designed as a service-learning course not only to provide preservice teachers with a broad view of teaching and learning but also to allow a focus on schools in the context of a larger society in later courses. Students are given the opportunity to develop and build on their own civic character while examining the place of education in the new millennium. Ayers and Ray (1996) believe that courses featuring a service-learning framework "help students make connections about who they are, what they think, and how they act" (p. 10). The elementary education faculty at Ball State University believes that teachers must have these understandings before passing them on to children.

At Ball State University, preservice teachers earn credit for teaching methods courses through the Department of Elementary Education and their content methods courses from other departments. The department offers a sequence of six professional core courses that are taken by elementary education majors beginning with EDEL 100 in the freshman year. A practicum course is taken in the sophomore year, two practicum courses in the junior year, student teaching in the first semester of the senior year, and a senior seminar in the final semester of the senior year. As in other teacher education programs, these professional core courses are interspersed with a variety of general studies and methods classes. For the elementary education majors at Ball State, the core courses provide a

developmental and carefully sequenced set of experiences leading to licensing based on the INTASC principles.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The primary goal of EDEL 100 was to become the foundation on which the new elementary education program would be built. As a result of learning experiences in this course, students will:

1. Explore trends that shape education in a democratic society;
2. Engage in civic activities that influence the lives of children;
3. Examine professional traits and strategies necessary for successful teaching and learning in a democratic society;
4. Develop an understanding for the complexities of teaching and learning in a democratic society;
5. Identify and reflect on personal educational experiences that influence teaching practices;
6. Begin an inquiry into the nature and aims of education in a democratic society;
7. Identify basic needs and experiences required for healthy youth development.

Given the broad base of this course and the limited exposure to diversity of the Ball State student population, a service-learning format was chosen as the most appropriate. By linking student experience to academic content, it served as an appropriate vehicle for educational reform in the Department of Elementary Education.

EDEL 100 has two components. The service component includes 50 hours of community service during the semester of enrollment. The seminar component is designed so that the adopted text material and the class assignments relate directly to the service experiences. Faculty members involved in course development chose to use the principles of good practice in service-learning identified by Howard (1993):

- *Academic credit is for learning, not for service.* While students must complete the service requirement to receive a passing grade in the course, they must also perform satisfactorily on the associated assignments to receive course credit.
- *Do not compromise academic rigor.* The faculty members who teach this course have seen students performing at higher levels and with more

enthusiasm than in the previous first-year course. From a quantitative standpoint, the spread of grades has been more representative of individual abilities.

- *Set learning goals for students.* Students make direct connections between their understanding of Search Institute's developmental assets and their individual service experience.
- *Establish criteria for the selection of community service placements.* A variety of placements are used and accessed through an existing university office established for the purpose of maintaining university and community connections. Student Voluntary Services has established contacts with approximately 250 agencies. Faculty members teaching EDEL 100 choose the most appropriate sites based on the identified needs of each agency and the content of the course.
- *Provide educationally sound mechanisms to harvest the community learning.* Faculty members have worked directly with agency personnel to ensure that students and agency participants benefit from the placements.
- *Provide supports for students to learn how to harvest the community learning.* The seminar component of this course is designed to include time for "service groups" that provide these supports. Time is dedicated to small-group discussion directly related to individual agency experiences.
- *Minimize the distinction between the students' community learning role and the classroom learning role.* Because the course work has been designed to intertwine with the service experience, students see them as closely connected.
- *Rethink the faculty instructional role.* This principle was probably the biggest change for faculty members involved in the course. Adopting a service-learning framework resulted in a shift in the emphasis of course content from classroom based to community based. Faculty members were drawn out into the community to have credibility in the classroom.
- *Be prepared for uncertainty and variation in student learning outcomes.* While extensive preplanning went on before implementation, faculty members meet on a regular basis during each semester to discuss new opportunities, problems, assignment expectations, and other issues arising from the course. Developing rubrics and establishing performance-based assessment practices have eliminated typical problems relating to this issue.
- *Maximize the community responsibility orientation of the course.* Faculty members spend time each semester with representatives from each

agency. The relationships that have been established over time have resulted in new opportunities being offered to students, the development of student evaluation forms specific to the agency, and the use of student feedback to modify existing agency experiences.

IMPLEMENTATION

Students spend the first three weeks of each semester gathering information about and signing up for the service placement(s) for the rest of the semester. During this time, they begin reading assignments in the course text and work in groups to identify personal biases and experiences that will influence the way they will perceive their service experience(s). Once students begin their service hours, they keep daily logs, write biweekly reflections, and complete four writing assignments relating academic content to their service. In addition, students participate in "service seminars," where they work with classmates to verbally process their experiences.

Students in EDEL 100 choose one or two service sites in which to complete their 50-hour service requirement. This process is facilitated by Student Voluntary Services (SVS). While SVS has ongoing connections with 250 area agencies, EDEL 100 students use approximately 35 that have identified needs corresponding to the goals of the course. Placement sites fall into four categories: tutoring, day care, youth development (YMCA, Big Brothers/Big Sisters, Boys and Girls Club), and other. The final category includes nursing homes, homeless shelters, women's shelters, a children's museum, a cultural center, and an environmental center.

A variety of measures are used to evaluate students' performance and growth. Student performance is assessed based on the connections made between the service placement and individual course assignments. Performance at the service site is evaluated by the agency supervisors, SVS coordinators, and through structured self-assessment. In addition, rubrics have been developed to determine the depth and quality of the biweekly reflection assignments. The midterm examination requires students to set short-term goals for their service placement that must be built on the course content.

What makes this course distinctive is that Ball State implements a quality service-learning course on a large scale. Of the approximately 2,000 undergraduate elementary education majors at Ball State University, 350

students take EDEL 100 each semester. Students consistently focus course evaluation comments on the value of the course at both a personal and professional level.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In EDEL 100, students are given the opportunity to earn academic credit through the connections made between service to the community and course content, and to examine the characteristics needed to work toward healthy development in children. As courses are implemented in the new elementary education program, plans are being made to introduce service-learning as pedagogy at the junior level and in student teaching. In addition, one EDEL 100 faculty member will introduce students to service-learning as a teaching strategy during a project planned with kindergarten children at a local professional development school.

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INTEGRATING SERVICE-LEARNING AND SOCIAL STUDIES PEDAGOGY AT WISCONSIN LUTHERAN COLLEGE

■ RAY DUSSEAU AND JOHN FREESE

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

The course that integrates service-learning and social studies pedagogy on the campus of Wisconsin Lutheran College is EDU 324, Teaching Social Studies. It is designed to meet the needs and interests of elementary and middle school education majors. With some adaptations, it has also been used for secondary history and social science majors. Wisconsin Lutheran College is a small and relatively new college located in Milwaukee. The college is committed to a liberal arts curriculum, and every program-teacher education included-is dedicated to working within that liberal arts structure.

The course under consideration (EDU 324) is an essential component of the program's emphasis on professional skills and dispositions. Students typically are at the junior level, having completed their core educational foundation requirements but still about one year away from student teaching. For many, this course is their first midlevel methodology course. All students have been introduced to lesson planning and unit development, but the movement from pedagogical theory to classroom application still creates considerable stress and apprehension.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

Five specific course goals have been identified for EDU 324. First, an overview of the content of social studies is critical. This review, which includes a look at the various social science disciplines, helps preservice teachers establish parameters of the field. Second, focus is placed on the teaching methods, instructional materials, and evaluation techniques for the developmental needs of students in social studies. Third, research and practice relating to the social studies, curriculum development, imple-

mentation, and evaluation are emphasized. Fourth, the design of activities and approaches that project social studies into the family and community is important. Fifth, skills related to decision making, problem solving, group dynamics, interpersonal relations, and communication must be integrated into the social studies methodology.

The conceptual framework underlying the course is the inherent college curricular connection to the liberal arts. Preservice educators are taught to comprehend vital information, emphasize character development, and apply past knowledge to new settings. They are prepared to anticipate actions and reactions and communicate clearly and effectively. It is imperative that they can skillfully synthesize concepts, analyze complex issues, and make connections to cognitive and emotional intelligences while assessing ideas and evaluating results. Service-learning provides a marvelous opportunity for college students to integrate these conceptual and complex concerns with real-world, authentic situations. Because of the inherent link found in service-learning between theory and reality, preservice educators have opportunities to work with P-12 educators and students on issues of personal interest and community significance.

IMPLEMENTATION

Collaboration has been established between the teacher education department at the college and a neighboring middle school of approximately 900 students. College students in EDU 324 are connected to individual seventh-grade students in their middle school social studies classes. The college students serve as mentors to the seventh graders, offering suggestions, research guidance, and editing assistance. Each seventh-grade student selects his or her own topic of personal interest. The college-age students serve as mentors, not activity directors or censors. This service-learning mentoring activity lasts approximately 6 to 7 weeks, with the college students meeting weekly with their middle school partners.

This mentoring project is nested within a middle school unit entitled Project Act. Having selected an issue of personal interest at the local, state, national, or international level, the students read and research to expand their knowledge base and gather data. Historical records are examined. Journals, magazines, and newspapers are scoured. Trips are taken to the library for books relating to the topic. Internet searches are especially popular. The college mentors offer suggestions and guidance during this

process, but they do not do the work. Past focus areas have included helping local homeless families, stopping family violence, helping at food pantries, preserving the environment, cleaning up a city park, and writing and performing a drug awareness skit at a nearby elementary school.

Next, the seventh graders prepare advocacy materials in support of their issue, either writing a letter or preparing a speech. The advocacy development must be persuasive in language and style. Accuracy counts. Basic portions must include a clear statement of the problem, supporting data indicating the severity of the problem, and a rational suggestion for improvement. Letters are sent to appropriate government and business officials, and the local newspaper. Speeches are delivered to city and county officials. Finally, a responsible activism is encouraged. Students are encouraged to physically participate in actual service to the issue of their choice.

Assessment of this particular unit activity is based on several authentic indicators. College mentors complete weekly observation and evaluation forms detailing the work and efforts of the seventh graders with whom they are working. Classroom teachers assess their seventh-grade students by the quality of their advocacy materials and their observations of student participation. The seventh graders participate in a detailed self-evaluation. Parents are asked to participate in evaluating the advocacy work and the active involvement portion of the project. In addition, the organizations assisted are asked to respond to the student advocacy and activism displayed on their behalf. The college mentors also complete a self-evaluation inventory. They are provided an opportunity to reflect on professional growth during the unit. The college students are encouraged to note evidence of character development and the growth of emotional intelligence during the progression of this service-learning project.

This collaborative relationship has been progressing over the past six years. During that time, program emphases have shifted and reformed in such a way that service-learning is the outcome of the work, not just lip service to social studies' goals of community involvement and active citizenship. Assessment of lifelong service to the community and to issues of interest is progressing. Continuing involvement of service-learning in the college graduates' classrooms similarly are being assessed. The project has been recognized and awarded by the local school district as a creative and innovative activity.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Future plans for integrating service-learning and social studies pedagogy at the college include expanding the Project Act model to other schools, increasing preservice student participation in other service-learning projects through an enhanced clinical experience of a longer duration, and more sophisticated research into the subsequent service of students as they mature and college graduates as they establish their own classrooms.

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EXPERIENCING ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP: SERVICE-LEARNING IN AN ELEMENTARY SOCIAL STUDIES METHODS COURSE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

■ RAHIMA C. WADE

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

Each semester, I teach two sections of 7E: 161, Methods of Elementary Social Studies, in our elementary education program. The three-credit course, along with several other subject-based methods courses, is a requirement for all undergraduates who aspire to completing an elementary education degree.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The goals or “Big Ideas” for the course, as they are stated on the syllabus, are the following:

1. Social studies should teach about what it means to be a human being.
2. Social studies is both content and process.
3. Social studies should foster reflection and interaction.
4. Social studies should be responsive to the concerns of a diverse and interdependent world and relevant to the present-day lives of students.
5. Social studies should give students opportunities to contribute actively to the improvement of their school and the larger community.

With these five core beliefs as a foundation, the course provides students with several experiences involving community service-learning. Why include service-learning in a social studies methods course? The mission of social studies is creating active and informed citizens. Rather than just reading about community involvement in a textbook, the course emphasizes the learning and values that can result from direct involvement in the community. Service-learning is promoted as one of the most

effective means for embodying the five big ideas of the course and for giving teacher education students a firsthand experience in learning about the community and understanding the challenges and successes in attempting to make a difference. While some of the students in my course have participated in some type of community service, few have even heard of, let alone experienced, service-learning. In addition to the direct experience students gain as service-learners, students also benefit from activities and assignments that encourage them to envision how they could use service-learning as a teaching strategy in their classrooms. A one-credit practicum in the local schools, taken concurrently with the social studies methods course, provides students with the opportunity to assist a public school teacher with implementing a service-learning project in an elementary classroom. While this chapter focuses on the activities that are part of the methods course, it is important to note that the practicum fills the important role of providing a reality check about how service-learning might be conducted in a classroom of 20 to 25 elementary children.

IMPLEMENTATION

The service-learning activities in the methods course begin on the first day of class. I provide students with detailed information about five possible choices for their community service-learning (CSL) project and explain the option to come up with their own placement as long as it satisfies the following criteria: working with a child or children in need between the ages of 5 and 12 through a community agency for a minimum of 15 hours. Most students choose to work with children from single-parent families through Big Brothers/Big Sisters, ESL students in an evening family literacy program, or inner city children in a weeklong intensive experience in Chicago. Some students tutor diverse students in a local neighborhood center or facilitate a recreational intergenerational program with senior citizens and children from single-parent families. For every CSL project, students are required to spend a minimum of 15 hours in direct service; travel and planning time are considered extra. Because the methods course meets for only two clock hours per week, the CSL project hours make up the third class hour for the three-credit course.

Students are also engaged in several learning and reflection activities throughout the semester. Early in the semester, we spend a class session on service-learning using videos of students in action, interactive exercis-

es, and brainstorming a short plan for a classroom-based service-learning project. Students read several articles in preparation for this class, and we often discuss prior community service or service-learning experiences in our lives, looking at whether those experiences were positive or not and what we learned about ourselves and others from them.

The major reflection and assessment tool for the CSL project is a portfolio. Students complete several assignments at different points in the semester and then compile them in a portfolio that has multiple purposes. The portfolio enables students to reflect on their learning from the CSL experience and serves as the principal means for the instructor's assessment of their learning. In addition, the portfolio provides students with a product they can use at job interviews to talk about their knowledge with and experiences of service-learning.

The first portfolio assignment is the social issue advocacy assignment. Students choose a social issue affecting children to research on the Web and through print resources. In most cases, students choose issues that are directly affecting the child or children with whom they are working in the CSL project (e.g., single parenting, divorce, poverty, bilingualism, racism). After students research their chosen issue, they develop a position on this issue and engage in an activity to try to effect change. Typical actions include writing a letter to the editor of a newspaper or a government official, creating a bulletin board display in a public location, or making a presentation to a local group. While students struggle with both developing a position and deciding how they can best make a difference relative to the issue, they also learn that "service" is more than meeting needs of individual children. They discover the larger issues surrounding children's needs and begin to recognize the important role advocacy plays in trying to create changes in society.

At midterm, students complete an in-class "check-in" and reflection on their CSL experience. In addition to providing information to the instructor about how things are going, it is also an opportunity for students to reflect upon what they are learning about themselves, children, and the act of "serving." Structured questions such as the following encourage students to make connections between their CSL experience and their future role as a teacher: What skills have you used or developed in your CSL experience that will be useful in your future teaching? What have you learned about children that you will make use of in your future classroom?

Toward the end of the semester, I bring in examples of superior portfolios from prior semesters. Students see how others have introduced their CSL projects with an attention getting cover page that introduces the agency and the project. The second and third pages of the portfolio focus on what the students actually did in their projects. These pages might include photos of project participants in action, “artifacts” from project activities (e.g., drawings, poems, ticket stubs, ice cream shop receipts), and captions to inform the reader about the many experiences students had throughout the project. Next, students insert their social advocacy assignment and a page describing what they did in relation to the issue they researched.

The final page or two of the portfolio is an essay about what they have learned from their CSL experience about themselves as future teachers, about children, about skills involved with teaching, about community service and service-learning, about citizenship, and as related to other issues and skills. Students can write this page as an essay, a letter to the instructor, a letter to the reader of the portfolio pages, a poem, or in other acceptable forms. Students are provided with the following set of questions to guide their reflections:

1. What did you learn about yourself as a teacher? What teacher skills did you need to use in this project? What knowledge or abilities did you develop as a result of working on this project? What skills or abilities do you now recognize that you need to develop?
2. How did your experiences in this project change your views of children or families? What will you do as a teacher to accommodate children with different needs in your classroom?
3. How might what you learned about social issues or community agencies impact your future teaching of elementary social studies?
4. How can you apply what you learned about community service-learning to your future teaching of elementary social studies?

Grading is a challenge with the CSL experience. Toward the end of the semester, one of my graduate students checks with the supervisors at the agencies involved about the students’ timeliness, responsibility, and work with children. Students who have problems in one or more of these areas get from two to eight points taken off their final grade, depending on the severity of the difficulty. The CSL portfolio counts for 20 points toward

each student's final grade. Grading on the portfolio takes into account the following criteria printed in the syllabus: (a) neat and proofread, (b) visually attention getting, (c) clarity in portraying what you did for the project, and (d) evidence of strong reflective ability in what you learned from the project and your social issue research.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Thus, the CSL experience and related assignments in my elementary social studies methods course help students see the value of civic participation through direct experience in the community. They learn about social issues affecting children they will someday teach, community agencies serving children and families, and ways they can involve children in advocacy and direct service activities. With the additional skills and knowledge gained in the service-learning practicum, students finish the semester with the ability to guide their future students to fulfill the social studies mission of informed and active citizenship.

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CHAPTER 17

SERVICE-LEARNING IN A SCIENCE METHODS COURSE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF AKRON

■ FRANCIS BROADWAY AND BETH CLARK-THOMAS

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

The conceptual framework for the College of Education is “educator as decision maker.” Within the Department of Curricular and Instructional Studies, the teacher preparation program contains four phases:

- Phase I. Learning About Learners: How can I use information about myself and others to understand decisions about students and learners?
- Phase II. Learning About Teaching: How do I use principles of learning to make instructional decisions?
- Phase III. Learning to Apply the Principles of Teaching: How do I make instructional decisions for specific groups of students?
- Phase IV. Learning to Teach: How do I make the best decisions for students?

Science in the Early Childhood/Middle School Classroom is in Phase III. Phase III courses offer specialized training in specific areas. These courses offer opportunities to work with students and teachers in school and community settings.

Service-Learning at Inventure Place is the exhibition of mastery for the course Science in the Early Childhood/Middle School Classroom at the University of Akron. It brings together instruction in science pedagogy, involvement in an informal science education center (Inventure Place), and a pedagogy, service-learning. The middle school preservice science teachers enhance their learning about children’s science learning through required observations and service. The middle school preservice science teachers also have an opportunity to demonstrate their science pedagogy content knowledge. Direct service to Inventure Place includes serving as exhibit floor volunteers and demonstrating a specific scientific phenomenon to a group of visitors attending Inventure Place.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The specific objectives for the course are both NCATE standards and instructor-specific objectives. The specific NCATE standard states that candidates know, understand, and use science in personal and social perspectives and the inquiry processes scientists use in discovery of new knowledge to build a base for science literacy (Elliott, 1998). The middle school science teacher, from course-specific goals, should be able to (a) use constructivist ideas in developing and teaching science lessons for middle school students, with special attention to the use of the learning cycle (Smith, 1998) and teaching for conceptual change (Stepans, 1996), (b) find and use teaching resources from nonprofit entities such as museums, and (c) plan and carry out lessons reflecting constructivism.

The course rationale for Science in the Early Childhood/Middle School Classroom states that "all students, including students of science pedagogy, come to school as curious learners who already have constructed a great deal of meaning about their world and who need the guidance of teachers to enrich and deepen those understandings. This course focuses on developing teaching skills to help young children and youth construct their own understanding of the natural world." Likewise, students of science pedagogy construct meaning concerning science teaching and science learning.

Germane to this course, service-learning provides a context for trying out pedagogical strategies (Root, 1997). Therefore, middle school preservice teachers through observing and volunteering in Inventure Place programs and implementing and teaching lessons at Inventure Place learn about science learning and teaching through service. Service-Learning at Inventure Place provides an opportunity for middle school preservice science teachers to investigate and practice teaching science, to explore how children learn science, and to examine an informal science center as a classroom for the learning and teaching of science.

IMPLEMENTATION

Participants in the Service-Learning at Inventure Place project are excused from regularly scheduled classes for the last 4 weeks of the semester. They are required to do 24 hours of service: 3 hours of orientation to Inventure Place; 9 hours observing and learning; 3 hours of lesson implementation (floor demonstration) involving the student's lesson and support of a partner; and 9 hours of lesson planning and preparation.

In addition to the 3 hours of orientation, each participant volunteers 7 hours at Inventure Place on the exhibit floor on his or her own schedule. After each volunteer experience, the participants reflect on their observations via a listserv. The listserv requires that the participants respond to the comments, questions, and observations of their peers and that they address specific questions related to their own observations: What did I see? What sense did I make of what I saw? What type of learning was occurring? What type of behaviors did I find the learners engaging in?

Near the culmination of their volunteer hours, a “planning” meeting is scheduled around the sixth week of the semester. At this meeting, participants are involved in several demonstration lessons conducted by the exhibit floor manager, which model the type of inquiry-based lesson that the participants will conduct during their exhibition of mastery.

At this planning meeting and following the demonstration lessons, the participants gather to review a draft of the assessment instrument for their participation in the project. The instrument includes their professional responsibilities, lesson planning, lesson implementation, and reflections/journaling. Each participant submits a final portfolio for evaluation that includes hard copies of all their listserv reflections, the plan for the lesson that they demonstrated, a videotape recording of their lesson, and a final paper of personal reflections about their participation in the service-learning project.

With school students attending a field trip at the Inventure Place, the participants perform a standard Inventure Place demonstration. The Service-Learning at Inventure Place participants restructure the demonstration into a learning cycle (Smith, 1998) or teaching for conceptual change (Stepans, 1996) model of instruction lesson before presenting the demonstration. In addition, each preservice teacher serves as a support person during one demonstration and videographer during another demonstration.

The participants spoke loudly about the project’s impact on the preservice science teachers:

The requirements of observation helped me to understand children’s learning patterns as well as the length of their attention span. I liked how the main focus was to let students explore and learn on their own. I can agree now with this part, but I feel there needs to be a level of “teaching” to the student to help explain ideas so students can better learn the concepts.

The participants also modified and redefined their preconceived notions of teaching science:

[In our classes,] we are learning that students learn in different ways and therefore need different varieties of instruction, but we do not actually necessarily understand this. These observations {in the informal science setting} will help anyone to see the importance of using a variety of teaching methods. . . . The observation part is the most important part, in my opinion, because it gives the observer a perspective in the many different ways that the children learn.

Both the participant-as-facilitator role and the careful observation of children engaged in science learning enabled the preservice teachers to reconstruct their concept for teaching science:

I found that my nerves settled once I started {teaching} because the kids were interested in my activity and the focus was not directed toward me anymore. . . . It made me excited to get into the real world of teaching. The students I observed processed information in a completely different way than they would in a traditional classroom.

Service-Learning at Inventure Place in conjunction with traditional on-campus instruction, however, is not sufficient for conceptual change in science pedagogy content knowledge (Broadway & Clark-Thomas, 1999). Thus, a third element, service-learning in a traditional classroom, needs to become part of Science in the Early Childhood/Middle School Classroom. Semester hours would be spent at the university, an informal science setting, and in a local middle school. At the middle school, the preservice science teachers would observe practicing teachers planning and preparing for teaching and assessing science learning. As the culminating piece, the middle school preservice science teachers would teach a science lesson to a middle school class. This expansion of the service-learning model will increase students' exposure to a variety of science pedagogical models and increase their opportunities to try out instructional ideas in real situations.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Service-learning in Science in the Early Childhood/Middle School Classroom has expanded to include the Cuyahoga Valley Environmental Education Center and the Akron public schools; however, the latter are not in the model outlined above. Conversations have taken place to expand to the Great Lakes Science Center and Cuyahoga Valley National Recreation Area. These different informal science settings will increase the knowledge about the science learning occurring at these facilities as well as inform science teacher educators about what preservice science teachers learn about teaching and learning science through service-learning. The hope is that the model, which includes two service-learning experiences, will be tested as part of continuing teaching and research.

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LITERACY AND SERVICE-LEARNING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF MONTANA

■ MARIAN J. MCKENNA

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

Literacy is a critical social and cultural experience rather than a bicameral issue of methodology as the combatants of the “reading wars” might suggest (Friere & Macedo, 1987). As a professor of literacy studies in a school of education, it is my job to create experiences for preservice teachers of all content areas so that they can understand the broader concepts and applications of literacy for themselves and their future students. This chapter provides the “what,” “how,” and “why” of using academic service-learning to promote student learning and application of very abstract concepts. Academic service-learning, the integration of course curricula with identified community needs, is the vehicle that provides literacy application experiences that could not otherwise be duplicated in the university classroom.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The use of academic service-learning in this literacy course has two paramount goals, one of which is to teach the abstract concepts and psychological principles of literacy to preservice education university students. The second goal is to support these same university students in the use of academic service-learning as a pedagogy for their teaching of middle and high school content area students. The integration of academic service-learning in a literacy course is a natural partnership, as literacy and service share many of the same psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic characteristics. In psycholinguistic dialogue, literacy is discussed as including processes that are strategic, constructive, motivated, fluent, and lifelong. So it is that academic service-learning also includes these five processes. University students must be strategic in defining and proposing solutions to community issues involving literacy. Service providers must be constructive in developing partnerships and expertise in addressing service requests. Students become motivated to learn the course content more

deeply so as to be able to best serve clients and community fellows with whom they are developing personal relationships.

Students become fluent in the literacy terminology they are learning as well as in the language of their community fellows that is broader than that of the campus community. Finally, in many cases, students become lifelong learners and incorporate the pedagogy of academic service-learning as well as literacy strategies in their P-12 teaching (McKenna, 2000). In addition, sociolinguistic variables are shared between literacy and service. Students apply classroom literacy learning in immediate and meaningful contexts through academic service-learning. These applications are the basis for the classroom discussions of students' shared experiences. The reciprocal nature of service and literacy allows for a sustained, interactive, recursive, and reflective teaching/learning experience in a dynamic community (Schön, 1990). In this culture of change in higher education and public schools, academic service-learning belongs to us all for compelling pedagogical, psychological, and philosophical reasons.

IMPLEMENTATION

The class that serves as the focus for this chapter is a literacy strategies course, Literacy Strategies for Middle and Secondary Content Area Teachers, conducted on the Missoula campus of the University of Montana. The students are preservice secondary education majors and come from every discipline on campus. There are science, history, math, and English majors, as well as students of the fine arts. In some cases, Literacy Strategies is the first education course they have taken. Many of the students are from Montana and hope to continue their teaching careers there. They tend to be white middle-class students who have a limited conception of school, education in general, and the issues of diversity beyond the state boundaries. Studies in literacy and experiences in academic service-learning in the community expand these conceptions. The core of the course is to teach future educators the psychological processes of literacy (reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing) and strategies for use in the classroom to support high school students' efforts to learn from text, lecture, film, and each other. One of the requirements for this course is the service-learning project. The students are required to go into the community to use their time and expertise in some aspect of literacy where they have little to no previous experience and a demonstrated need exists for service in literacy. The minimum num-

ber of hours for this requirement is 15, but many of the students spend 30 to 60 hours in the service-learning, making it truly a service as well as an academic effort. Academic service-learning creates the link from the abstraction of what literacy is to the applications of literacy strategies for learners.

Students may select existing tasks or design their own projects. They are supported in the selection process by the Volunteer Action Services office, which provides a list of organizations seeking volunteers. In addition, the professor of the course receives many calls requesting help in a variety of areas from individual parents needing a tutor for their child to local schools and hospitals calling for volunteers. As word of this program has spread, so have the requests grown. Students from this course are working throughout the community, doing invaluable work that had heretofore not occurred to them to do. For example, some students find themselves in a radio broadcasting booth reading the newspaper over the air for visually impaired members of the community. Others work in youth homes, the YMCA, local hospitals, nursing homes, adult learning centers, and schools. Many choose to work on campus providing services for students with disabilities, typing text on modified computers or audiotaping text and lectures for fellow university students. Other students provide story hours for local bookstores and libraries.

In their service-learning, students work with an age range that spans nursery schools to adult learning centers and nursing homes. Students have the opportunity to work with a great diversity of people who otherwise might have remained invisible members of the community. The service-learning placements expose students to a wide range of cultural, socioeconomic, and racial diversity. The students are respected, and community members and organizations request their time and energies. Students grow increasingly committed to their chosen academic service-learning as they become involved with their clients. Many students end their response logs or final papers with the commitment to continue what began as a class requirement.

Academic service-learning is an integral part of the course that enriches the depth of learning for all the students. Classroom and professor time devoted specifically to organizing and arranging the field experience project is fairly minimal. Time is taken in class to introduce the project and its purpose and to help students brainstorm ideas for their work. Once the students have selected a project and begun their work in the field, class time is given for discussions of challenges, curricular connections, and unexpected benefits they may be discovering in their placements. As these

in-class discussions continue throughout the semester, students begin to realize that their role as educators and responsible, literate members of a community goes far beyond the boundaries of the classroom.

In the middle of the term, students are asked to write a reflective in-class essay about their service-learning experience of approximately 50 minutes or three to five pages in length. At the conclusion of their service, students write a field experience project paper recording what they did for their service field work, what they learned from the experience, how it relates to the class discussion and readings, and how the project relates to their feelings about themselves as future educators and citizens. These papers reflect the impacts that academic service-learning has had on students' sense of self, clarification of career goals, sense of diversity, and individual responsibilities to their communities (McKenna & Ward, 1996).

The culmination project for the course is an integrated content unit plan that includes a fully developed service-learning component for the delivery of curriculum. In this way, the university students must demonstrate their ability to incorporate academic service-learning in their content teaching. The units are critiqued in the university classroom, taught in the local schools, and assessed by the integrated teaching teams. This vehicle allows students to demonstrate their understanding of academic service-learning not only as it relates to their own learning but also as an effective pedagogy for their content areas and future teaching.

As students participate in literacy based academic service-learning, a distinct enhancement in the quality of the conversations, questions, and reflective discussions develops in the campus classroom. It is thrilling for a faculty member to realize the achievement of teaching/learning goals and the integration of teaching and service responsibilities. The three variables—service provided in response to community needs, academic service-learning built into the course objectives and assignments, and time given in class for small-group reflections and reflective essay writing—are essential components of an academic service-learning experience rather than simply community volunteerism.

In conjunction with academic service-learning experiences, students read the works of Kozol (1991), Friere and Macedo (1987), Shannon (1995), and McLaren (1998) and include in their reflections the links among literacy, learning, politics, power, and democracy. The result of the integration of course content and community-based literacy experiences is that students' academic achievement in the course is enhanced. This greater achievement goes outward

to embrace students' sense of self and what they have to offer their community, a development of a sense of social ethics, and clarification of their career goals and their role as educators in a democratic society (McKenna, 2000).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In many ways, the upsurge in the use of academic service-learning can be viewed as a response to a society that is increasingly marked by social and cultural apathy. Many in this culture are experiencing a sense of being overwhelmed by the marketplace mentality that dominates the economy and the disconnected nature of so many communities. Academic service-learning is in part an answer to a sense of cultural and psychological isolation. Through the use of academic service-learning in institutions of higher education and P-12 schools, learning is enhanced for all participants, service is mutually provided, and the action and hope of an evolving democracy is brought to the foreground and integrated into educational practices.

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CHAPTER 19

STUDENTS' UNDERSTANDING OF YOUNG CHILDREN'S GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT AS ENHANCED BY SERVICE-LEARNING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA

■ NANCY K. FREEMAN

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

Service-learning has been effectively integrated into EDEC 540, *The Young Child: Growth and Development (Birth-8)*. This course is required for those students enrolled in our education minor who plan to pursue initial certification in early childhood education through our university's fifth-year Master of Arts in Teaching program. It is also open to others with an interest in young children's growth and development.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

EDEC 540 examines children's intellectual, physical, social, and emotional development, prenatal through grade four, within an ecological context. It is designed to teach students to apply theory and research related to children (birth to 10 years) using an ecological approach. Students are expected to:

1. Exhibit the attributes of a professional educator, including appropriate knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors.
2. Employ an ecological or system approach to understanding children and their development in the context of family, school, and community.
3. Demonstrate a knowledge of current research on the physical, social, emotional, and intellectual development of young children from a variety of cultural settings.
4. Compare the major theories in the field of child development.
5. Evaluate the relative contributions of heredity and environmental factors to a child's development.
6. Investigate and observe children (infancy through age 8) participating in a group setting.

7. Consider the implications of child development and learning theory and research for developmentally appropriate curriculum design.
8. Consider the implications of child development and learning theory and research for developmentally appropriate instructional methods, classroom management techniques, and disciplinary strategies.
9. Plan and implement appropriate instructional activities based on knowledge of theoretical principles and research findings. Formulate short-term plans based on this knowledge and understanding.
10. Become familiar with developmentally appropriate techniques to assess student development and learning.
11. Compare and contrast what is considered "typical" and "atypical" in development.
12. Examine the role of play in promoting development and learning.
13. Recognize the importance of providing children opportunities to explore a variety of roles and occupations through classroom materials and activities.
14. Take the recommended universal precautions to protect their personal health and safety and teach children appropriate health and safety practices.
15. Become familiar with on-line research technologies, including ERIC and USCAN.
16. Join a professional organization and attend at least one professional meeting.
17. Participate in service-learning activities that engage preservice teachers in learning activities that meet community needs, are collaboratively planned by teacher educators and community resources, and provide opportunities for educators to reflect about their experiences.

Instructional planning and implementation of the course goals have been built upon constructivist, sociocultural epistemological foundations.

The centerpiece of EDEC 540 is the child study project, which is based on 15 hours of interaction with and observations of a young child. Most students select a child enrolled at the USC Children's Center, but they may choose another location for their service-learning. No matter where they engage in service-learning, they are required to study a child from a culture different from their own and one with whom they do not, at the onset of this project, have an ongoing personal relationship. It would not

be appropriate, for example, to conduct this study on a child for whom they regularly baby-sit or is enrolled in a child-care or after-school program where they work.

I encourage, but do not require, students to work with a preschooler aged 3-5 because they are able to apply many of the theories of cognitive development and emerging language to preschool-age children.

Of the 15 hours invested in hands-on interaction with young children, 2 hours are to be devoted to literacy activities, including reading books, writing (and prewriting) activities, and talking about reading and writing. This part of the assignment has been supported by the addition of books, purchased through funded minigrants, to supplement the center's library. Students learn firsthand about literacy development while giving young children valuable lap-reading experiences.

IMPLEMENTATION

All students are oriented to the center during a regularly scheduled class meeting. This orientation includes a video tour of the center and describes scheduling and record keeping. They also receive a copy of *Language and Literacy at the USC Children's Center*, a handout developed by the center's teachers that includes an introduction to the center's policies and priorities, as well as advice about how to support children's emerging literacy. This introduction to the center was created by the center's teachers during a literacy development course they took together, and it is a prime example of their participation in the USC Professional Development School network.

College students' visits to the center are scheduled by the research assistant. Scheduling is a major challenge, as students' class schedules and work obligations and the constraints created by the children's naps can make scheduling complex. The classrooms are small, and it is important that not too many adults are in any particular room at one time. Students are free to set hours to fit their own schedules, but they are asked to come for no fewer than 2 hours at a time and to plan their visits to extend over the entire semester. Classrooms tend to be overcrowded at the beginning of the semester and may be crowded again at the end of the semester.

Preservice teachers completing service-learning activities at the center are expected to complete a reflection in a service-learning journal as soon as possible after each visit. This journal asks students to answer some of the following questions:

- What am I doing and why?
- What am I learning?
- How does a child (or children) benefit from my participation at the center?
- How am I benefiting from my participation at the center?
- Can you give an example of what might have happened if you had not been there to meet a child's needs during a particular incident?
- What did you expect to do/learn when you found out that this project would require you to spend a significant period of time at the center? Did it happen?
- What unexpected insights have you gained about young children, families, teaching, or learning as a result of your interactions at the center?

College students in EDEC 540 make a brief oral report in class, sharing what they have learned about young children in the course of their child study project. These reports, as well as the written projects they turn in to the professor, invariably include insights into the role of early childhood educators and the ways they became "teachers" as they supported children's development. It is also apparent to students (and cause for celebration) that they have grown in the process of serving and working at the center and that they are closer to their goal of becoming confident early childhood educators.

College students' growth is demonstrated by their entries in their service-learning journals. Their learning is also demonstrated as they complete their child study projects, which demonstrate their ability to link theory with practice. End-of-course evaluations predictably report that students feel this hands-on experience is one of the most valuable parts of their early professional development. The words of preservice teachers themselves offer the most convincing evidence of the usefulness of this assignment:

I believe that I have learned more from my service than I ever expected.

Service-learning is a magical combination of giving to others while growing and learning yourself, and the experience at the Children's Center has given me that opportunity.

I feel we need this experience more because we can possibly see things from a child's point of view and realize that all children in the class are individuals with individual talents. I feel that the children are benefiting from this experience as well because they get special attention from one person over and over again.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Experience has shown us where we have been successful and has also alerted us to possible stumbling blocks to success. These are some of the most important lessons that help to ensure positive experiences for both preservice teachers and young children with whom they work:

- DO orient students to their service-learning site and give them a contact person who can troubleshoot problems and answer questions.
- DO create clear expectations of how to interact. Every setting has its own expectations. Students need guidance as they plan to enter an unfamiliar setting so that they can quickly adapt and make valuable contributions.
- DO encourage students to continue their relationship at their service site even after course requirements have been met. Creating a disposition for serving is one of the most important objectives of service-learning pedagogy.
- DON'T expect students to know the difference between service-learning and community service. Professors have to make the link between experiential learning and course material explicit. Students need to understand the rationale and the rigor involved in this form of pedagogy.
- DON'T overload students with service-learning hours. Be sensitive to the demands placed on their time by their busy school and work schedules.
- DON'T treat service-learning as an afterthought or add-on to the course activities. The link between stated course objectives and these practical experiences needs to be made early and repeated often.

The words of preservice teachers completing service-learning at the center demonstrate their appreciation for the opportunity to link theories from the college classroom with their experiences interacting with children:

I am surprised by the feeling of responsibility that I have acquired when I am around these young learners.

I welcome the times I get to spend around my child, as it gives me the opportunity to watch and learn from some of the smartest people around children.

I feel my child is benefiting from my participation in this project through the increased availability of one-on-one interactions.

I am not only learning about the children, I am also seeing more of the inner workings in a classroom.

Hands-on, one-on-one experiences in a nurturing environment support the growth and development of students of all ages, whether they are infants and toddlers just finding their way in the world or college students preparing to take their place as adults in the teaching profession.

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CHAPTER 20

USING SERVICE-LEARNING TO ENHANCE THE PREPARATION OF PRESERVICE SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS AT RIVIER COLLEGE

■ HOWARD S. MUSCOTT

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

Special Education Across the Curriculum is an advanced methods course in an undergraduate preservice teacher education program in which students gain competencies and dual certification in special education and in either early childhood education or elementary education. It is the last course in the special education sequence that begins with an introduction to human exceptionality and includes courses in language development and disorder, behavior management, and special education assessment. The class is taken in conjunction with either the early childhood methods class, Experimental Learning in Early Childhood, or the elementary education methods course, Reading/Language Arts in the Elementary School. Both programs culminate with a student teaching internship that includes experiences with students with disabilities and their nondisabled peers.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The course has a variety of goals that are directly connected to New Hampshire standards for the education of students with disabilities: to design and manipulate aspects of a learning environment and learning routines to promote students' adjustment and adherence to behavioral standards; to identify and teach aspects of affective education, such as communication skills, interpersonal skills, and methods of dealing with conflict and frustration, to individual students and groups of students; to use a variety of methods for teaching reading/language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies; to plan, organize, and implement an individual education plan (IEP) appropriate to the cognitive, behavioral, and affective needs of the student; and to develop and/or adapt, implement,

and evaluate curricula, instructional materials, and special teaching methods, including task analysis, learning strategies, curriculum-based instruction, and service-learning for use with students with disabilities.

This experiential learning methods course focuses on planning, programming, and evaluating instruction for children with disabilities. Active participation, applied experiences, and collaboration with peers and community partners are embedded throughout the semester. The course requires preservice teachers to complete a 25-hour service-learning experience with students with disabilities in a school-based program. The preservice teachers may place themselves or be placed by the college's service-learning coordinator. To shift the paradigm from traditional preservice training to one more focused on service-learning, however, they must work collaboratively with their field-based cooperating teachers and college professor to plan experiences designed to meet the needs of students with disabilities, their families, and the faculty and staff who work with them. It is not sufficient for Rivier students to simply meet course objectives and their own personal and professional goals through the experience.

IMPLEMENTATION

Six assignments ask students to make direct connections between what they are learning about teaching students with disabilities in the course and their community-based service activity. Except for the personal reflections, each assignment is shared with the cooperating teacher and implemented during the placement to meet the needs of the school partners. The assignments and their outcomes include:

- *Reflective journals.* These weekly journals, written with “what,” “so what,” and “now what” sections, are designed to develop each college student’s ability to step back and ponder his or her own experiences and to abstract some meaning or knowledge relevant to other experiences, course readings, and class discussions.
- *Lesson plans with modifications.* These highly formatted plans, which include specific reflection sections, are aimed at developing planning, implementing, and evaluating skills that take into account specific state standards, school curricula, and individual student needs.
- *Collaboration with colleagues and families project.* This project requires college students to work collaboratively with cooperating teachers and

peers to develop, implement, and evaluate an action plan. The plan must be designed specifically to meet the individual needs of one or more students with a disability.

- *Assistive technology project.* This activity requires college students to locate and review one computer program or piece of assistive technology that would enhance the learning or life functioning of a child or adolescent with a disability and to share that information with peers and the community partners.
- *Curriculum-based instruction programming.* This project is designed to help college students, in collaboration with their community partners, design, implement, and evaluate a curriculum-based instructional program aimed at teaching a specific skill to a child or adolescent with a disability.
- *Development of an individual education program.* The assignment requires college students to work directly with a child or adolescent with a disability and members of the school-based team to develop an IEP that meets the child's specific, individual needs. The IEP must identify the student's present level of functioning and needs, and include goals, objectives, instructional strategies, and services to meet those needs.

One example of the connection between academic learning and service to the community involves Rivier's partnership with Dr. Crisp Elementary School in Nashua, New Hampshire. In this four-school program, students and faculty from this course and others in a variety of departments on campus have collaborated with students and faculty from Bishop Guertin and Nashua high schools to develop and run a nationally recognized service-learning program called SO Prepared (Service-Learning Opportunities: Prepared for Citizenship). Now in its fifth year of operation, SO Prepared is designed to meet the expressed need for after-school programming in character education for nondisabled students, students who have identified disabilities, and those at risk for behavior problems. Each child in the program is assigned a college or high school mentor and college students from a variety of methods courses, including Special Education Across the Curriculum. The college students are trained to serve as program leaders and curriculum coordinators who design and implement monthly thematic lessons that enhance character

traits such as responsibility, caring, compassion, trustworthiness, and fairness. Each month, the children and their mentors participate in a service-learning project that benefits the school in some way. Projects have included holiday food drives, cleaning up the playground, landscaping, and the creation of big books for the school library.

Assessment of the impact of the class and service-learning experience is gathered on the preservice teachers, the students with disabilities, and the placement itself in a variety of ways. The assessment of the college student's performance is determined by a review of the individual projects and reports described above along with written feedback regarding actual performance provided by the cooperating teacher in the field. The lesson plans, collaboration project, assistive technology project, curriculum-based instruction programming, and IEP are individually graded according to a rubric, and the assessment includes detailed written feedback. The collaboration and technology projects both have team components and team grades. In the case of the technology project, each team makes an integrated oral presentation to the class in addition to the individual write-ups. The collaboration assignment includes both a team report and individual written reflections, "fishbowl" activities on topics related to teaching, and feedback from their cooperating teachers regarding their work with children and adolescents with disabilities. A record of the cooperating teacher's feedback is included in each student's file and used to evaluate his or her overall readiness for student teaching. Students evaluate their own performance through written reflections in journals, lesson plans, and oral discussions.

Assessment of the appropriateness of the field placement is determined by having each student complete an evaluation form at the end of the service-learning experience. These evaluations are used to determine a "goodness of fit" for future placements.

Assessment of the impact of the preservice teachers on the children and adolescents with whom they worked is gathered in two ways. First, the cooperating teacher informally evaluates the impact based on observation of interactions and teaching and communicates that information in her summary evaluation. Second, assessment data on student learning are directly measured and collected in each lesson plan, curriculum-based instruction project, and collaboration activity.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The service-learning component in this course directly involves cooperating teachers in planning for outcomes and activities for their students that go beyond getting an extra pair of hands in the classroom or helping future teachers better their craft. Moreover, continuous oral and written reflections and applied assignments move beyond traditional teacher training practices, because they directly tie course content to real applications and meet the real needs of students with disabilities. Another special feature of the class is that students can sign up to take an additional credit for service-learning. This "Plus One" option allows students, professors, and community agencies to develop individualized service-learning projects that extend farther than the assignments and requirements for the course itself. It is a concrete expression of the college's mission for social justice, and all undergraduate students are required to participate in one Plus One experience as a requirement for graduation. Students taking this option develop a plan and sign a contract with the professor that spells out the specific outcomes of the service project and how it connects with the learning outcomes of the class. Students opting for the Plus One credit have participated in local direct service activities such as SO Prepared and national indirect advocacy service activities through participation with organizations like the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorder Foundation.

In the future, we hope to require these types of service-learning experiences in all graduate methods courses as well and to develop long-term ongoing relationships with specific partner schools in the community that will take a critical mass of our students each semester.

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SERVICE-LEARNING IN MIDDLE-LEVEL TEACHER EDUCATION AT CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY-SAN MARCOS

■ LAURIE STOWELL AND JANET E. MCDANIEL

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

California State University-San Marcos (CSUSM) is a 10-year-old institution located 35 miles north of San Diego. Early in the university's development, the faculty, with the support of the vice president of academic affairs, instituted service-learning through the establishment of the Office of Community Service-Learning. CSUSM's service-learning philosophy statement, "Setting a Life Pattern for Giving Back to the Community," emphasizes the education of our students as members of the community who learn from the community and address the needs of the community. It is intended to instill the ethic of service by integrating community service into academic learning.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The mission statement of the College of Education recognizes service as a strategy to help achieve social justice and educational equity. Just as service is seen as a tool for our use, it can be a tool to achieve these same ends with students in middle schools. For example, middle school students can provide service that furthers social goals (e.g., caring for others in need, crossing generational lines, tutoring) or ecological goals (e.g., cleaning up a beach, reclaiming a lagoon, maintaining a trail). What transforms these examples of service from "volunteer work" to "service-learning" is the deliberate and conscientious connection of the service to the core curriculum of the students in school. "Serving to learn" becomes equally important as "learning to serve" in this scenario.

We teach in the Middle Level Teacher Education program, which prepares preservice teachers who receive licensure in elementary and middle

level education. Each year, a cohort of approximately 25 postbaccalaureate preservice teachers are enrolled in a team-taught, full-time program that emphasizes teaching and learning for social justice in middle schools.

Service-learning is a well accepted component of the middle level education reform movement. Teachers of young adolescents are urged to assist their students to connect to their communities, thereby buttressing the students' self-esteem and their reputation in the community. *Turning Points* (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989) advocated not only connecting schools with communities but also providing opportunities for service by 10- to 14-year-olds: "Youth service in the community should be part of the core program in middle school education" (p. 70). More recent publications and reform reports have reinforced this call for service and have emphasized the necessary connection to academic learning goals. The state superintendent of public instruction called for service-learning at every level of schooling in California in a 1999 task force report (State of California, 1999).

IMPLEMENTATION

We integrated service-learning early in the Middle Level program's development, with mixed success. We have always had two goals in mind: teach the pedagogy of service-learning in our curriculum; and model service-learning with our preservice teachers. We want our preservice teachers to learn about service-learning, participate in it, and understand how to implement it in their classrooms. We did not want it to be just an academic exercise that they conducted at the university but never used in their classroom teaching. We wanted this paradigm to become a part of their total philosophy of teaching and learning.

In our first attempt at service-learning, the preservice teachers learned about and then provided service to agencies that supported the needs of young adolescents. At the end of the academic year, we held a service-learning fair. Each student wrote a pamphlet of information about his or her agency and how it supported the needs of young adolescents. We set up our fair in a heavily trafficked location on campus, and the fair was well attended by other university students and faculty.

The following year, we were more systematic about meeting community needs. Laurie Stowell developed a needs assessment survey for the preservice students to conduct in their own communities (e.g., their

apartment building, their church, their neighborhood). Then the group discussed whether to do service individually, in small groups, a large group, one time, several times, or regularly. The cohort members decided to do their service for the middle school where our teacher education classroom is located, thereby serving our most immediate daily community. To connect the service to our curriculum, we decided to help the reading specialist conduct diagnostic testing, thereby buttressing our curricular content on young adolescents' literacy. At the beginning of the school year, many middle school students need to be tested to qualify for services and to determine their needs. The reading specialist trained our preservice teachers how to conduct parts of the tests. The preservice teachers then signed up for times they were available to test (before class, lunchtime, or after class). We did some troubleshooting when necessary. The preservice teachers reflected on how the service was going and what they learned in their literacy course (taught by Laurie Stowell). The project met an immediate need of our community by providing service and was directly tied to our learning. But it still did not meet our second goal regarding providing a model for implementing service-learning with middle level students.

For the 1998-99 academic year, we received a California Serve and Learn grant to incorporate a service-learning component in the Middle Level Teacher Education program. We attended the summer Teacher Education Service-Learning Institute at Service Learning 2000 in Palo Alto with our public school partner (a math teacher who is a graduate of our program). At the institute, we planned how we could implement service-learning in our teacher education program and serve our public school partner.

Planning for our project with the preservice teachers began early in the academic year. All the course work in the Middle Level program is organized in thematic units. The first theme is "Learning happens in caring communities." For two weeks, we learn about how to build caring communities in the classroom, the social nature of learning, connecting schools to home and community, culturally responsive communities, and serving the communities to which we belong. Two or three class sessions are devoted to the pedagogy of service-learning: what it is, historical background, and how it connects to middle level education. The preservice teachers read about service-learning and participate in activities that clar-

ify what activities and projects look like that are highly integrated into the curriculum and meet a need of the community being served.

The next step in our project was to have the preservice teachers practice writing service-learning lesson plans. They did so by incorporating service-learning into the integrated unit plans that they write during the first semester of the teacher education program. Preservice teachers work in teams of two or three to prepare a 3- to 4-week unit plan around a curricular topic usable in middle school. As students are writing the unit plan and service-learning lessons, they receive a great deal of feedback and guidance from all the instructors in the program. These service-learning lesson plans serve as a trial run for the project to follow.

The two of us and our partner teacher met with the middle school's teachers who were interested in learning more about service-learning and integrating it into their curriculum. We conducted a brief workshop about service-learning, after which 18 partner teachers signed up to work with a preservice teacher on service-learning. Some partner teachers had specific projects in mind or had begun projects and wanted assistance in integrating the service into their curriculum. For example, the school had a community garden and a school store, and teachers were looking for ways to connect those projects more strongly to their curriculum in science or math. The preservice teachers signed up to work with a partner teacher in their curricular areas (math preservice teachers with math partner teachers, etc.). Sometimes two preservice teachers worked with one partner teacher; others were matched one on one. In some cases, the preservice/partner teacher matches were the same as the matches made for the advanced student teaching assignment that was upcoming; however, the majority of the preservice teachers were to be assigned to other middle schools for advanced student teaching.

When our preservice teachers met with the partner teachers for the first time, the partner teachers explained their curriculum, their ideas, and their needs. Preservice teachers offered ideas and did some initial planning with the partner teachers present. Over the coming weeks, the preservice teachers created plans to incorporate service-learning into the chosen curriculum unit. This plan of the service-learning component was followed by one complete lesson plan from each student teacher assigned to a mentor teacher. Many of these plans were accompanied by detailed curriculum materials that the partner teacher could use when the project was

enacted. In some instances, the preservice teachers observed or participated in the service-learning experience that they had planned. The preservice teachers received a grade on their project in the social studies methods course that Janet McDaniel teaches.

Reflection enables students to understand the benefits of the service and its connection to their learning the school curriculum. We made explicit the ties between reflection and young adolescents' development, e.g., clarifying values as students confront novel situations and guarding against first impressions or biases that the young adolescent may be forming. We used materials from several sources to present multiple strategies for reflection in the middle grades, and we modeled reflection in our teacher education classroom when the students had completed a common experience such as student teaching. Reflection is ongoing, so we were careful to include reflection activities in our classes as the preservice/partner teacher service-learning project progressed.

One fortuitous occasion for reflection was the visit of an outside evaluator for our Learn and Serve grant. She met with the preservice teachers and later reported to us that they were very articulate about what they were experiencing with the project. When the outlines and lesson plans were complete, we asked the students to write about and to discuss their experiences in creating service-learning lesson plans. Their enthusiasm for service-learning was evident, and they wished for a more extensive experience that included all of them being able to see their designs through to enactment.

Celebration honors the efforts of those who provide service, and it further support from other factions for community service-learning. The preservice teachers shared their curriculum development plans with their colleagues in a final session devoted to this project. The school principal and our liaison math teacher were complimentary toward the preservice teachers' efforts, and several of the partner teachers wrote letters to thank the preservice teachers for their service.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

We are much more satisfied with this project with regard to meeting our twin goals of participating in service-learning and modeling service-learning for middle school teachers. The closer we come to having preservice teachers practice the planning and enactment of service-learning, the more likely it is that they will have the desire and skills to engage in serv-

ice-learning in their own classrooms. We continued with this project during the 1999-2000 academic year, following many of the same steps and activities of the previous year. In this iteration, however, the students wrote service-learning lesson plans for their master teachers at six school sites instead of one. Although we recognize the need to refine our efforts in service-learning, we believe we have met the three-part challenge our State Superintendent of Public Instruction issued to teacher educators: to provide experiences with service, instruction about service-learning, and opportunities to practice service-learning during the preservice education of California's future teachers.

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THE INTEGRATION OF SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION MAJOR/PUBLIC AND COMMUNITY SERVICES MINOR AT PROVIDENCE COLLEGE

■ JANE CALLAHAN

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

At Providence College, students majoring in education graduate with dual certification in both elementary and special education. The program is committed to the development of teachers who are prepared to teach all children in an elementary school building, and service-learning is felt to be one strategy that will assist teacher candidates in developing the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to meet this goal. Findings by researchers indicate that service-learning has the potential to make instruction more worthwhile for students at risk, provide opportunities for students to develop problem-solving and decision-making skills, encourage students to develop closer ties to and become part of the community, and develop a sense of self-esteem and self-worth. With these outcomes in mind, service-learning has been integrated into a number of courses in the program and for a number of graduates provides a core around which their preparation for teaching revolves. In addition, these students have the opportunity to take electives or complete a minor in the Public and Community Studies program. This combination of education and public and community studies courses offers a variety of community service experiences and provides opportunities for students to learn about the cultural diversity of students, the community, and the school's place in society.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The goals of the service-learning strand are to prepare teachers who can (a) engage children in an inquiry-oriented curricular approach using commu-

nity needs as the foundation; (b) provide meaningful learning experiences that foster civic responsibility, democratic values, and a sense of being an integral part of the community; (c) foster the development of a collegial environment within and among school, home, and community; and (d) address the needs of all children through classroom curricular activities. A specific outcome of the service-learning strand is that students will develop projects in collaboration with classroom teachers and community agencies that meet a need in the school or community and integrate service with structured reflection and academic skills and content.

Preservice teachers involved in the service-learning strand are introduced to community service and to service-learning pedagogy through a sequence of education and public and community studies courses. For example, freshmen minoring in public and community studies take an introductory course, while sophomores take a course called Diversity, Community, and Service. Juniors majoring in elementary and special education take two practica: Teaching Language Arts and Social Studies, and Teaching Reading. Seniors minoring in public and community studies take Foundations of Organizational Practice and do an independent study, while those majoring in elementary and special education do a practicum that involves assessing and preparing a curriculum for students with mild to moderate disabilities.

IMPLEMENTATION

Education majors may begin to take public and community studies courses in their freshman year. Placements might include an AIDS hospice, a neighborhood soup kitchen, a homeless shelter, or a home health agency. In one instance, students worked with a community center to develop an after-school program for neighborhood children and directed and staffed the program. Course and placement offerings are coordinated by education and public and community studies faculty to ensure that college students have experiences that will enhance their knowledge and understanding of the communities where the schools are located and broaden their view of the opportunities for service projects once they begin teaching. Readings and assignments are related to the theory of service-learning and to providing an experiential basis for understanding the pedagogy.

Service-learning pedagogy is introduced and examined in three methods classes beginning in the teacher candidate's junior year. Each course has a field component that enables the preservice teacher to integrate the-

ory and practice in actual classrooms. In collaboration with elementary teachers from partner schools who have been prepared to use service-learning, practicum students' experiences are structured in a way that permits them to become more familiar with the community, understand the components of a service project, integrate curriculum into service, and work with teachers to develop projects in practicum classrooms.

At the beginning of each practicum, students are provided with an orientation to the school and the surrounding community. They are then directed toward the use and implementation of service-learning as an inquiry-oriented curricular approach and toward the integration of the elementary school curricular framework and service project activities. For example, in the reading methods course, college students must connect project activities to district literacy outcomes and identify performance opportunities to document attainment of these outcomes in service projects.

As students develop skills to teach reading, language arts, and social studies, they are provided with opportunities to plan and implement lessons, which meets course goals for themselves and curriculum goals for the elementary students. In their final methods course, one that addresses the issue of meeting the needs of students with learning difficulties, project outcomes are broadened to ensure that all students, including those with special needs, participate in service-learning projects, meet learning objectives, and become active and contributing members of the school and class community.

During the final semester of their senior year, teacher candidates complete two 8-week student teaching placements, one in an elementary classroom and one in a special education setting. Those with a minor in public and community studies enroll in an independent study course during their student teaching semester and either develop and implement a service-learning project or design and carry out an action research project involving a service or a community issue.

Assessment and evaluation have been carefully considered, and methods are currently being developed and field tested. A portfolio assessment process for teacher candidates is currently being field tested in the elementary/special education program. Service-learning assignments and activities serve to assist students in demonstrating progress toward INTASC (Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium) and Rhode Island beginning teacher standards and program approval

guidelines. Faculty have completed preliminary research on connections between program outcomes, standards, and criteria that will enable faculty and students to align outcomes to specific program courses and projects. For example, for the inquiry-oriented outcome, a preservice teacher might document that s/he had engaged children in an inquiry activity that assessed community needs and determined a specific project to meet those needs. This documentation could then be included in the teacher candidate's portfolio as evidence of meeting the Rhode Island beginning teacher standard that addresses critical thinking and problem solving.

Assessment of the strand itself and the service-learning practica is achieved in a number of ways. First, college students keep a weekly log that enables them to reflect on the school, community service, and the teaching/learning process. Faculty observe college students at the practicum sites and meet with them and cooperating school teachers weekly to monitor project progress and facilitate project implementation. At the end of each school year and before the beginning of the new school year, college faculty and project school teachers meet to review the year's activities and plan for the upcoming academic year. In addition, program faculty provide both graduate and in-service courses for interested teachers recruited to enlarge the pool of appropriate practicum sites.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Such a project is time and labor intensive. It requires collaboration among college faculty from different departments, the staff and administrators of local schools, and community organizations. Both college and school district administrators need to approve agreements, and college faculty curriculum committees need to be made aware of and approve additions or changes to course sequences and credits. Teachers and college faculty need to be recruited to participate in the program and then to become comfortable with using and teaching the pedagogy and working closely with school and community partners. Program faculty have learned that a key component of preparing the teachers to have more meaningful collaboration around service projects and preparation of preservice teachers is for the teachers to have a dialogue with college faculty on service-learning. These dialogues occur in two ways. First, college and school faculty, graduate interns, and practicum students meet weekly to discuss their projects, and second, a three-credit graduate professional development course on

service-learning is offered to partner school participants. This course provides opportunities for teachers, faculty, and administrators to explore theory and practice, work out problems that arise during the development and implementation of service projects, and become comfortable using the strategy to mentor teacher candidates.

The development of this program was originally funded by a Learn and Serve America/Higher Education Grant. In addition, Providence College was the recipient of a substantial grant to develop a public and community studies major in 1993. Both of these grants have contributed valuable resources in terms of expertise, encouragement, materials, and funding to free busy faculty and teachers from their daily schedules and provide time for thinking and working together. In addition, some faculty from the Education Department have found service-learning a rich area for study and have worked together and with colleagues across the country in developing research projects that examine the outcomes of integrating service-learning into teacher education. Faculty have developed a set of service-learning competencies for beginning teachers and have initiated a study of the connections between these competencies and the INTASC and National Board standards.

Future plans include refining the service-learning competencies, standards, and criteria for preservice teachers, developing assessment strategies for measuring the impact of the service-learning on preservice teachers, developing a more extensive professional development partnership around service-learning with partner schools, developing a series of graduate courses to assist teachers in using service-learning pedagogy in their classrooms, and recruiting more teachers and faculty for the service-learning strand.

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CHAPTER 23

A GRADUATE COURSE IN SERVICE-LEARNING AT CLEMSON UNIVERSITY

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INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

Integrating Service-Learning Into Curricula is a graduate level course for teachers or community partners. It is included in the foundations area in the School of Education. The course is designed to prepare teachers to be able to integrate service-learning into any academic curriculum in grades kindergarten through high school. It is designed to prepare community partners to integrate service-learning into any nonformal educational setting or to partner with a school to integrate service-learning into the academic curriculum of the school.

PURPOSE AND GOALS

The course provides opportunities for teachers and community partners to build competence in service-learning by exploring the theoretical foundations for service-learning, personally engaging in service-learning, and developing a plan to integrate service-learning into the curricula of their own school and/or district or community. This course provides knowledge and experiences to enable participants to meet each of the following goals:

1. Define effective service-learning;
2. Develop rationale for service-learning programs;
3. Experience service-learning personally: preparation, participation, and processing;
4. Describe the service-learning cycle;
5. Identify and use service-learning resources: research articles, children's literature, videotapes, books, games, community agency literature, and educational libraries;
6. Identify service-learning program organizational issues;

7. Develop an action plan for service-learning with children;
8. Apply the principles of good practice for combining service and learning;
9. Experience guiding children in service-learning
10. Identify ways that service-learning contributes to career exploration;
11. Analyze how service-learning relates to state legislature, teaching standards, and assessment guidelines;
12. Describe the change process and develop short- and long-range plans for integrating service-learning school-wide or in a community setting;
13. Implement a plan for integrating service-learning postcourse, either school-wide or in a community setting;
14. Reflect on lessons learned through service-learning personally and with children.

The course both instructs in the methods of service-learning and uses service-learning as a methodology to teach the theoretical rationale of the method. Our philosophy is that participants will learn best what service-learning is by engaging in service-learning personally. The first quarter of the class introduces the concept and theoretical rationale of service-learning. The second quarter of the class focuses on engaging students in the components of preparation, action, reflection, and celebration by participating in an actual service-learning experience. During the third quarter of the class, students prepare and implement a plan for guiding children in a service-learning experience. In the final quarter of the class, change theory is introduced, and students work in teams to develop and critique plans for implementing service-learning school-wide or in a community setting following the course.

IMPLEMENTATION

Although students participate in all kinds of service (direct, indirect, and advocacy) during the course, the direct service experience has been the most meaningful. Because their direct service is a one-time experience, however, it must be meaningful. The course has traditionally been team taught. Professors make initial contacts for site visits, modeling the role that teachers or community partners will take when they supervise service-learning experiences.

Service-learning sites have included Meals on Wheels, the local animal shelter, a soup kitchen, a Habitat for Humanity house, and a site in Hawaii. Each site demonstrated real needs. Needs, either in part or in

total, were met during the student experience. Reflective journaling and class reflection was based on students' experiences.

An innovative part of the course has been the participant-led service-learning experience for children, in either a formal or an informal educational setting. In our class, we have sought opportunities to involve children who are traditionally overlooked or not included in contribution or leadership experiences. Class participants make the necessary arrangements with the service site, work with the children to prepare them for service, engage in the service with the children, guide the reflection throughout the experience, and celebrate the children's accomplishments. An important outcome of this assignment has been the completion of a product or an accomplishment that the children own.

A distinctive component and assignment of this course has been to weave children's literature into all aspects of the participant learning experience. We demonstrate using children's literature for all grade levels in all stages of the service-learning process. Class participants also are required to read a variety of children's books, developing strategies for incorporating these books into their curricula.

One essential assignment for students to complete and share is contacting and interviewing local community-based agencies. The course instructors have been well acquainted with agency personnel and with the needs of a variety of agencies before initiation of the course.

Grades are assigned based on a contracted intent by the student to complete a differentiated level of requirements and an assessment by instructors of the quality of work completed by each student. Students are given opportunities to improve work if needed and/or when possible. The contract with students is a powerful tool.

Follow-up of course participants reveals that more than 95% of participants have implemented some form of service-learning experience in their own setting. In addition, participants encourage other colleagues to adopt service-learning. Several school districts have adopted service-learning as a recommended method or as school board policy as a result of the commitment of several course participants. Many of the participants have become part of a Department of Education-sponsored cadre of service-learning trainers, providing leadership in our state to expand the practice of service-learning. Recently, many became part of the National Peer Mentor program in the Learn and Serve America Exchange.

One major challenge of preparing teachers to return to their own setting and implement service-learning is curriculum integration, which requires the teachers to shift their current teaching paradigm. They may teach toward the same educational goals, but they do it with a very different approach. When teachers present their implementation plans, course instructors usually are very involved in supporting the development of these working plans. Areas that teachers request the most help in are assessment and overall planning.

All participants assess their service-learning sites. Initially, at least one course instructor participated in each experience, providing firsthand assessments of the service sites. In the case of long-distance sites like the Hawaii site, only the students had firsthand knowledge. We have also sought insights from the community partners who administer the site. Reflection activities, whether written, oral, or creative (drama, art, music, writing), often provide additional assessment information about the sites.

The most valuable sites are ones where students experience a real need firsthand and realize that their contribution, although limited in time and in scope, meets at least a part of that need. Sites that have worked well for us have been Meals on Wheels, the local animal shelter, a soup kitchen, a local gardening program, Habitat for Humanity, oral histories with senior citizens, and similar service need areas. We also point out that they may continue their connections to the site or a similar one in their own setting in the future. We do not recommend one-time experiences in settings where only a long-term commitment truly meets the need.

For the service experiences for children, physical proximity to a site may be an important consideration. In addition, we have learned that having a product increases the sense of accomplishment for children. One-time experiences might include a park cleared of debris following a storm, a book drive with a read-in for a local Head Start or child-care program, working in a local public garden, or planting trees or other plants at a needy community location.

Initially, our course was offered as a special institute. A first step in gaining institutional support was approval by the university curriculum committee. We presented the syllabus to the university curriculum committee at all levels, gaining approval from each source. At the outset, the course could be taken for recertification credit or with approval as an elective in the student's graduate program of study. Recently, the program in ele-

mentary education approved the course to satisfy one of the aspects of the innovative teaching strategies section of its master's degree.

Feedback from this course has influenced the development of service-learning content in the preservice teacher education program. Service-learning has been integrated into the foundations course, Child Growth and Development, into field experience courses, and into mathematics, English, and science methods courses. More recently, through the zero-based curriculum review process at the undergraduate level, the following recommendations were made: "Additional opportunities for field experiences could come through service-learning projects. . . . All students could develop and implement service-learning projects for and/or with their students during the student teaching experience. . . . [Students] could design/create service-learning projects to carry out during their field experiences."

Recently, the School of Education has adopted a mission statement, guiding principles, and learner outcomes for students who graduate from our teacher education program. The language in all three recognize and provide support for service-learning. The most direct statement is "the empowered professional can use service-learning appropriately in instruction"; another statements is "the empowered professional reaches out by partnering with university and local practitioners to work on solutions to community . . . state . . . world problems."

Institutional support for service-learning in the teacher education program is now growing in the environment of expanded campuswide institutional collaboration through the work of the Service-Learning Collaborative, which involves faculty from every college on campus. The collaborative has offered minigrants for the past two years as incentives to involve more faculty in learning about how to use the service-learning method and has sponsored a campuswide celebration of students' involvement. In addition, a task force assembled to study the general education experience at Clemson University has incorporated the idea and spirit of service-learning in its proposed changes for general education.

The design of the graduate course incorporates a large amount of reading, viewing of videotapes, and other resources, with opportunities for reflection in a journal. Participants are encouraged to analyze their learning relative to the service-learning experiences during the course.

The first offering of the course was sponsored by the state Department of Education, with participants attending tuition-free. In subsequent

years, a local school district has contracted with the university to have the course taught on site in its district. Students again have the opportunity to take the course tuition-free. An additional way in which the course has been financed is through grants. An Alliance 2020 grant, financed by the Kellogg Foundation, supported one school district's participation. The Kellogg Praise Project has provided support for one additional offering of the class. It has also been offered during regular summer school, with students paying tuition and as an independent study for one very motivated doctoral student.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

With the inclusion of the course as a recognized program option, we hope to offer it on a regular schedule as a tuition class. In addition, school districts have shown interest in continued offering of the course on a contractual basis.

During a recent spring semester, four sections of Child Development and Math Methods classes collaborated with a local middle school to provide 1-hour one-on-one tutoring every morning for 16 students in the sixth grade. Five honors students evaluated the effort. Students who participated in this experience demonstrated more professional maturation than students in previous classes, when the experience had less depth and intensity. The length of commitment and the development of a relationship are critical factors in effective experiences. We plan to continue to develop this partnership and to improve our service-learning practice at this middle school.

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ADMINISTRATIVE, ORGANIZATIONAL, AND PEDAGOGICAL ISSUES

Although there is no single process that is best for all teacher education programs to use in initiating and institutionalizing service-learning, there are a number of key administrative, organizational, and pedagogical issues that are effectively addressed in all successful service-learning efforts. Gaining administrative support for service-learning, developing the policies and infrastructure needed for success, and collaborating with schools and other community partners are crucial factors in the initiation and sustainability of service-learning. Teacher educators are in the position to powerfully influence the quality of P-12 education by preparing new teachers to use service-learning as a pedagogy. Faculty involved in this effort will find valuable guidance and practical strategies in this part of the book, as well as discussions of key concepts pertaining to assessing service-learning outcomes, and using service-learning to achieve the goals of multicultural education.

CHAPTER 24

A DEAN'S PERSPECTIVE ON SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

■ STEVE LILLY

Service-learning has been a hot topic in higher education for the better part of a decade. National higher education organizations have put their collective weight behind promotion of service-learning programs on campuses. Numerous influential national support organizations such as Campus Compact have facilitated the widespread adoption of service-learning programs in colleges and universities. Countless universities have established support offices to encourage service-learning in courses and majors across multiple disciplines.

Given the steady and substantial expansion of service-learning programs in higher education, it is somewhat surprising that on many campuses the involvement of schools and colleges of education has been inconsequential or even nonexistent. Schools and colleges of education embody the concept of integrating teaching, learning, and community impact. Faculty in schools and colleges of education regularly engage in community service activities, and students are expected as a condition of graduation to demonstrate their ability to make a positive difference in the lives of school-age youngsters.

Why is it that the most community-oriented academic unit in the university is sometimes noticeably absent from involvement in campuswide service-learning programs? Why are schools and colleges of education seldom characterized as the centerpieces of service-learning programs on their own campuses? I believe the answer is not a matter of neglect or indifference; any college of education would readily assert the coherence of mission between their own organization and the campus office for service-learning. Rather, I believe the answer is in a lack of full understanding of the nature and purpose of service-learning, leading to the mistaken belief that schools and colleges of education are "already doing that" with our students. Teacher education practicum experience is sometimes characterized as the college of education equivalent of service-learning, lead-

ing to the errant assumption that service-learning itself is either redundant or unnecessary for education students.

WHY IS SERVICE-LEARNING NECESSARY AND IMPORTANT IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION?

Service-learning is not teacher education, and teacher education is not service-learning. Neither subsumes the other. Service-learning can be defined simply as "the opportunity to learn academically while giving service that addresses real community needs" (Office of Community Service-Learning, 1999, p. 1). Service-learning has a balanced focus on the beneficial effects of the service provided for the recipients and the learning of the service provider. The learning of the service provider (in this case the university student) is most often defined in both academic and practical terms, i.e., increased knowledge in an academic discipline and enhanced appreciation of the importance and reward of public service. The effects of the activity on the service recipient are seen as equal in importance to the learning of the service provider.

Teacher education field experience also includes an expectation that the recipients of the teacher candidate's services will benefit. In fact, with the emerging emphasis on performance assessment in teacher education, it can be argued that documentation of such effects will be more evident in the future than has been the case until now. The primary expected learning effects from teacher education field experiences, though, can be argued to be for the teacher candidate him/herself. The field experience is essentially a preservice professional development experience, with the expectation that participants will demonstrate in the course of the experience substantial growth in professional practice as opposed to academic content learning. Thus, while field experience overlaps considerably with service-learning in its form and intent, they are in fact two different types of academic experiences. Successfully completing professional field experiences does not in any way guarantee that teacher candidates understand or can implement service-learning programs when they become licensed teachers.

Some might argue that this is a difference without a distinction, that service-learning and professional field experiences are so closely related as to be substantially equivalent. Regardless of one's conclusion on that issue, there are in my view several compelling reasons for including service-learning as a part of all teacher education programs:

- Service-learning provides the opportunity to expand dramatically both the extent and the nature of practical experiences for teacher education candidates. Experiences can be incorporated that take students into social service agencies, community-based organizations, family support programs, neighborhood development projects, and many other activities that enhance the candidate's understanding of and ultimate effectiveness with students in P-12 schools.
- Most schools and colleges of education have as a central part of their mission, either explicitly or implicitly, a commitment to promoting social justice through the efforts of both faculty and students. Service-learning is a powerful mechanism for "acting out" the commitment to pursuit of social justice in our schools and communities.

We need to consciously and systematically lead future teachers to connect their own practice with a personal goal to improve the human condition. This is a necessary disposition for teacher candidates that must be nurtured long before they enter a teacher education program. Further, this disposition must be based in a realistic sense of self-efficacy, beyond a simple desire to do good for others. Service-learning begun early in one's academic career, repeated across settings and time, engenders an enduring commitment (an ethic) to make a difference that benefits both oneself and others. A mature, well-developed sense of public service developed before entering teacher preparation can be enhanced within the teacher education program itself and can predispose new teachers to incorporate service-learning in their pedagogy in P-12 classrooms.

Teacher education programs can never incorporate the amount and variety of field experiences that we desire for our students. We are confined by resources and curriculum space. Service-learning incorporated systematically and pervasively in courses throughout the teacher education curriculum has the potential of expanding dramatically the amount of practical experience our candidates have by the time they obtain their licenses to teach, improving not only their effectiveness as beginning teachers but also their competitive advantage in applying for teaching positions.

Many teacher education programs have as an explicit goal the preparation of teachers for service in schools with histories of poor student performance. Many teacher candidates, however, have spent their entire experience as students in schools that bear little or no resemblance to

these "challenging" schools. Nor, in most cases, have they had direct experiences in the neighborhoods in which such schools are typically located. Service-learning provides excellent opportunities to expand the horizons of teacher education candidates before they are placed in challenging schools as a part of their official field experiences.

It is important to note that service-learning is an established program not only in higher education but also in elementary, middle, and high schools throughout the country. It is reasonable to assume that the majority of our graduates will be expected as teachers to incorporate service-learning into their classrooms. I continue to believe that, for the most part, new teachers practice what they have seen—which is precisely why it is so important for teacher educators to practice what we preach. We need to prepare our students to implement service-learning in their own teaching practice, and the best way to do so is by demonstrating it within the context of their preparation to become teachers.

Finally, service-learning makes a demonstrable difference in the lives of those who are served. One need only examine the case studies in Part Three of the monograph edited by Erickson and Anderson (1997) to be convinced that the most powerful reason for advocating service-learning is its direct effect on the very people whose lives we hope to enhance through our work in colleges of education. Service-learning is one of the right things to do in higher education in general and teacher education in particular.

In summary, deans need to advocate service-learning in teacher education because it makes a positive difference, it promotes the mission of the college of education, it is an effective teaching practice that our students need to understand, and it promotes important values and dispositions in both students and faculty. Moreover, service-learning is an effective indirect tool for systemic reform in schools and colleges of education. It is a reform activity that does not demand major reorganization or reorientation, yet it leads to fundamental changes in the way we approach our work as education faculty. Service-learning, effectively implemented and properly supported, can change the ethic of an organization, a necessary precursor to change in practice.

HOW CAN DEANS OF EDUCATION SUPPORT AND ENCOURAGE SERVICE-LEARNING?

If service-learning is an important and helpful component of teacher education, how can its prevalence in schools and colleges of education be

increased? How can deans of education promote adoption or expansion of service-learning in teacher education programs? Several ideas are presented in this section, ranging in level and specificity to take into account the various stages of both knowledge and practice among deans and in colleges of education. Following is a sample of actions deans can take to support and promote service-learning:

- Acquire seminal reading material and disseminate it to faculty in teacher education (e.g., Erickson & Anderson, 1997). Advocate among faculty and students the distinctions between service-learning and professional field experience and the value added for service-learning in teacher education.
- Include service-learning as a central concept in the conceptual framework for the teacher education unit, identifying its special roles in teacher preparation.
- Advocate for the inclusion of service-learning opportunities at all levels in the teacher preparation program, from beginning course work through methods classes and culminating experiences.
- Include service-learning as an advanced learning methodology in masters programs for practicing teachers.
- Advocate service-learning as a concept to be integrated throughout teacher preparation rather than add-on content that must displace existing content in the already crowded teacher education curriculum (Erickson & Anderson, 1997).
- Identify education faculty most supportive of or interested in service-learning and provide support for their developmental efforts. Provide tangible support for their own professional development, curriculum development, and pursuit of P-12 partnership activities featuring service-learning.
- Provide opportunities for early adopters of service-learning to influence their faculty colleagues through innovation incentives and mentoring/support activities.
- Sponsor a minigrant program for development of service-learning components in teacher education courses.
- Encourage innovators in service-learning to integrate their teaching, research, and service activities by featuring their scholarly activities in service-learning in writing for publication and presenting at profes-

sional conferences. Promote service-learning as a bona fide area of applied scholarship for college of education faculty.

- Sponsor special activities in the college of education to honor and promote service-learning. For example, conduct a "service-learning day" in which students and faculty display, present, and discuss their service-learning activities. Feature classes that include service-learning in prominent displays in the college of education, posting exemplary student projects. Sponsor a "service-learning semester," in which faculty are invited to incorporate service-learning components into as many college of education classes as possible.
- Promote service-learning as a professional development topic for area teachers, especially those who serve as master teachers for the college of education. Sponsor a workshop on service-learning especially for master teachers.
- Recognize service-learning in graduation and/or other special events in the college of education. Honor students and faculty for exemplary service-learning activities.
- Advocate for service-learning campuswide. Encourage college of education faculty to take leadership roles in campus service-learning initiatives and organizations. Assume a leadership role among campus deans in supporting and promoting service-learning.
- Feature examples of faculty and student service-learning activities in college newsletters and university media releases.

These examples are but a few suggestions for activities that are appropriate and feasible for deans to advance the cause of service-learning in schools and colleges of education.

FINAL THOUGHTS

For any dean with limited time, energy, and opportunities for impactful action, the question remains: Is service-learning worth the time and effort to promote it effectively? Will it make a sufficient contribution to pursuit of the college mission to make it a dean's choice for advocacy? For me, the answer to that question rests on one's definition of the deanship itself.

In my experience, few deans of education accept the role in pursuit of wealth, fame, power, or ambition. Rather, deans of education are first and foremost educators themselves, eager to make a difference through their

work in the lives of children, families, and teachers. In the deanship, this effect is generally indirect; that is, decisions are made and actions are advocated that will enable others to impact children and those who influence children. Occasionally, deans get to be guest readers in elementary schools or judge student portfolios on high schools or, even more rare, have the opportunity to teach in P-12 classrooms. More commonly, however, the dean's opportunity is to enable others to have direct impact on young people and their families.

In this vein, deans must be strategic in their opportunities to advocate and advance professional practice in both colleges of education and P-12 schools. Too often, it appears that the criteria for making strategic decisions in schools and colleges of education derive at least as much from a desire to enhance the reputation of the college as from the imperative to improve the lives of children, their families, and their teachers. Service-learning is, happily, an excellent opportunity to do both simultaneously. The image of colleges of education, both externally and within the university, rests primarily on our ability to demonstrate positive effects in the environment external to the university, specifically in schools and communities. Service-learning is within the existing ethic of most college of education faculty, ripe with opportunities for integrating faculty teaching, research, and service, rich in lifelong learning experiences for teaching candidates, and bountiful in occasions for promoting the college in the media and among external constituencies. Service-learning is a win-win opportunity for colleges of education.

Which brings me to my final point, the single most powerful way for deans of education to promote service-learning with faculty and students. I mentioned earlier that an essential tool for faculty to teach their students to use service-learning is to model it for them, to incorporate service-learning into their own teaching. I close by pointing out the obvious, that the single most effective way for deans to advocate service-learning among faculty and students is to practice it ourselves. How can deans practice service-learning in our own careers?

Recall that the simple definition of service-learning presented earlier in this chapter is "the opportunity to learn academically while giving service that addresses real community needs." I believe that every dean of education should be a positive and influential advocate for children, families, and teachers in the communities where we live and work. Deans must be

players in local efforts at social reform and educational improvement in our communities, while creating opportunities for college faculty and P-12 educators to have mutual positive impact on schooling and teacher preparation. A dean must define as a central part of his or her role the spheres of activity in which he or she will engage to make a tangible difference in the quality of schools and communities.

In other words, we deans must ourselves be agents of change and collaborators for progress. We must embody an ethic of service and if in doing so we also model a life of continuous learning and advancement of personal knowledge and practice, we are serving as models for others of effective service-learning. We must do no more or less than what we ask faculty, teaching candidates, and their students to do—to learn through making a difference in the lives of others. As pointed out earlier in this chapter, we must practice what we preach.

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CHAPTER 25

THE SERVICE-LEARNING SCHOLARS ROUNDTABLE: A MODEL FOR ENGAGING FACULTY IN SERVICE- LEARNING THEORY AND PRACTICE

■ SUSAN R. JONES

The call for reform in schools and higher education has been a hallmark of the past decade of educational life. In higher education, national dialogue centered on the need for colleges and universities to reengage with their surrounding neighborhoods and to be responsive to larger societal issues and needs. In elementary and secondary education, school reform addressed concerns of student engagement in active learning, academic proficiency, and the development of citizenship skills. Central to this dialogue are the areas of engagement, institutional responsiveness to social issues, student learning, and university-community partnerships. Service-learning is most notably identified as a successful strategy for promoting such educational objectives in both schools and higher education.

Growing interest in service-learning in P-12 education requires that teachers be knowledgeable about the theory and practice of service-learning. The most effective and efficient strategy for ensuring such understanding is through teacher education programs that require that college and university faculty integrate service-learning in the courses they teach for future and current teachers. The purpose of this chapter is to describe one model for engaging faculty in the theory and practice of service-learning. The model is based on the work of the Service-Learning Scholars Roundtable at The Ohio State University, a university-wide group of faculty interested in the study and implementation of service-learning. Specific applications to teacher education programs are offered as a means to address the question of how service-learning may be effectively and responsibly integrated into teacher preparation.

SETTING THE CONTEXT

Calls for reform in higher education consistently reinforce the need for colleges and universities to become more connected to community concerns

and social issues. Indeed, as Harkavy and Wiewel (1995) suggested, "Our great universities simply cannot afford to remain islands of affluence, self-importance and horticultural beauty in seas of squalor, violence and despair" (p. 9). Ernest Boyer (1996), astute scholar of campus and community life, responded to this mandate by identifying the need for a "Scholarship of Engagement," a strategy for connecting higher education "to our most pressing social, civic, and ethical problems, to our children, to our schools, to our teachers, to our cities" (pp. 19-20). Anchored in Boyer's work, Bringle, Games, and Malloy (1999) offered a picture of colleges and universities as citizens, characterized by significant and meaningful involvement in communities. In addition, the Kellogg Commission on the Future of State and Land-Grant Universities (1999) issued an "imperative for engagement," to propel institutions into the 21st century with a renewed commitment to responsiveness to the pressing and complex problems of our society and global community. Such changes in the mission and purposes of higher education cannot be accomplished without authentic university partnerships with schools, neighborhoods, and community service organizations. Service-learning is increasingly regarded as a pedagogy responsive to growing interest in reconnecting the university with civic life.

Similarly, the goals of service-learning and school reform are perceived as congruent (Erickson & Anderson, 1997). Service-learning has been described as the "sleeping giant of school reform" (Nathan & Kielsmeier, 1991) because of its relationship to educational transformation. Learning outcomes associated with service-learning are increasingly well documented (Billig, 2000; Root, 1997; Wade, 1997a, 1997b), as are the relationships between service-learning pedagogy and the development of the skills of citizenship and social responsibility (Marks, 1994; Rutter & Newmann, 1989; Waterman, 1993). Those teachers in P-12 who have been prepared to thoughtfully and effectively integrate service-learning in their classrooms not only will see positive educational and learning outcomes but also will become "major players in the transformation of public education" (Myers, 1995, p. 8).

Clearly, educational reform efforts in both P-12 and higher education are not mutually exclusive. Indeed, particularly in the area of teacher preparation, the need for dialogue and collaborative efforts could not be greater. If service-learning is to realize its potential for multiple outcomes and benefits, then those responsible for designing, implementing, and integrating service-learning in the P-12 curriculum need to be well

schooled in the pedagogy and methodology of service-learning. To do so requires support and involvement of faculty affiliated with college and university teacher preparation programs. The benefits of such university-school relationships is well described by Myers and Pickeral (1997):

Higher education faculty who include service-learning as a pedagogy for teacher preparation provide their graduates with a dynamic instructional strategy that engages students in meaningful learning and empowers teachers with the skills needed to contribute significantly to broad-based school reform. P-12 teachers who incorporate service-learning bring to their classrooms and schools an instructional strategy that influences all dimensions of school reform. For these reasons, service-learning should be included as a central process within teacher preparation programs in order to increase the ability of students to be successful teachers and leaders in the reform of public education. (p. 13)

Thus, the successful and effective integration of service-learning in teacher education programs requires the willingness, understanding, and support of university faculty. While the literature on service-learning indicates a growing interest in community-based scholarship among faculty, little research exists that documents faculty motivations for engaging in service-learning. It is clear, however, that colleges and universities with high quality service-learning programs enjoy a combination of widespread grassroots faculty efforts, academic leadership, and an infrastructure to support faculty work (Bringle & Hatcher, 2000; Morton & Troppe, 1996).

Faculty interest in service-learning stems from a growing recognition of the relationship between this pedagogy and positive learning outcomes associated with active and experiential learning (Hesser, 1995) as well as improved teaching effectiveness (Hammond, 1994). In addition, Lincoln (1998) noted that more faculty are interested in community-based inquiry that is linked to meaningful action and increasingly are shaping "careers [that] are models of a new form of academic work: the merger of community research with community service" (p. 28). Personal values consistent with community service explain increased faculty involvement, particularly among lower-ranking, women, and non-White faculty (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000). In a pilot study of a group of faculty at Ohio State using service-learning as a teaching strategy, Abes (2000) found that potential benefits

to the community, student learning outcomes, and revitalized teaching were factors identified as most encouraging the use of service-learning.

Research also suggests deterrents and obstacles to faculty use of service-learning, including the significant time commitment required, the lack of preparation to implement this teaching method and to develop long-term, sustainable community partnerships, insufficient support, and lack of rewards and recognition for such work (Abes, 2000; Anderson & Pickeral, 2000; Hammond, 1994). Bringle, Hatcher, and Games (1997) distinguished between first- and second-generation faculty who are engaging in service-learning for different reasons. Among the earliest proponents of service-learning pedagogy, first-generation faculty are characterized by their commitments to community building and good teaching. Those using this approach more recently, second-generation faculty, are more pragmatic in their approach and focused on concrete learning outcomes, thus requiring "training" in the pedagogy of service-learning (Bringle et al., 1997).

These findings suggest the importance of an infrastructure to support community-based faculty work, faculty development opportunities focusing on service-learning pedagogy, and collaborative relationships to enhance student learning and sustain university-community partnerships. The Service-Learning Scholars Roundtable at Ohio State is one model to engage faculty in service-learning.

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY INITIATIVE: SERVICE-LEARNING SCHOLARS ROUNDTABLE

In autumn 1998, a core group of faculty was identified to begin discussions about the pedagogy of service-learning and community-based scholarship at The Ohio State University. In addition, the group was asked, based on study and review, to identify strategies, program elements, and criteria required to further promote service-learning at Ohio State. While the overarching focus was on improving the quality of the undergraduate experience through engaging students in teaching, research, and/or service activities, particular attention was given to service-learning as an effective strategy for engaging faculty, students, and community members in community-based teaching and learning. The Roundtable was sponsored by the provost's office under the auspices of the vice provost and dean for undergraduate studies and coordinated by two faculty members from different academic areas at the University (Jackson, Jones, & James, 1999).

The purposes of the Roundtable were to:

- Increase visibility of service-learning and positive outcomes associated with its use among faculty and staff.
- Focus on strategies that lead to improved teaching, faculty-student interaction, and community-based scholarship.
- Provide an opportunity for faculty interested in service-learning to learn from one another and to discuss approaches, challenges, and outcomes specific to service-learning.
- Study service-learning, documented outcomes, exemplary models, and relevant strategies for implementation.
- Propose recommendations to the vice provost to further develop and promote service-learning at Ohio State.

The Roundtable began in 1998 as a group of eight faculty from eight different academic areas. In 1999-2000, the group expanded to 28 faculty from 12 academic areas. The Roundtable serves as a structure for faculty leadership in service-learning initiatives most notably by administering a course development seed grant program, providing faculty development opportunities, and creating a network for those faculty interested in the pedagogy of service-learning. Our general approach was based on the curriculum developed by Bringle and Hatcher (1995) for faculty. They identified the following topics as important for faculty learning about the pedagogy of service-learning: (a) introduction to service-learning; (b) reflection; (c) community partnerships; (d) student supervision and assessment; and (e) course assessment and research. The monthly meetings of the Roundtable were designed around these topics and included relevant readings, outside speakers, and dialogue among participants.

Through a variety of activities, the Roundtable has increased the presence of service-learning on campus, provided an infrastructure to support faculty efforts, and promoted the development of service-learning initiatives at the university and in the community.

SERVICE-LEARNING SCHOLARS ROUNDTABLE ACTIVITIES AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS

KNOWLEDGE DISSEMINATION

Visibility of service-learning at Ohio State was increased through several strategies. After our first year of study and discussion, we wrote a compre-

hensive report to the provost and dean for undergraduate studies entitled "The Role of Service-Learning in a Land-Grant Institution: Service-Learning Scholars Roundtable Final Report for Academic Year 1998-1999." This report was widely distributed to academic leaders as well as to those interested in community-based scholarship. The report not only described the Roundtable's recommendations for strengthening service-learning at Ohio State but also included substantial documentation from the research and literature about service-learning that directly linked to the university president's goals for Ohio State. In other words, we were explicit in connecting the outcomes of service-learning with the mission and strategic direction of the university. We formulated our recommendations around characteristics proven to be evident in institutions most successful in integrating service-learning in the curriculum: (a) leadership/support from university administration; (b) provision for faculty development; (c) common definition and visibility of service-learning; and (d) infrastructure to support service-learning (Jackson et al., 1999). In addition, we provided benchmarking information from our peer and aspirational institutions on service-learning initiatives.

Several other written projects were undertaken to increase campus knowledge of service-learning. The coordinators of the Roundtable wrote a section on service-learning for the widely circulated Ohio State teaching handbook for faculty. The Roundtable also prepared a response to Ohio State's draft academic plan, a newly created document intended to provide academic goals and measurable objectives to move the university forward in its efforts to become a top institution with a highly regarded academic program. In particular, the Roundtable provided language to strengthen the emphasis on service-learning in student learning and a rationale for increasing service-learning opportunities in the curriculum.

In our second year, the Roundtable, with the leadership and technical assistance from two faculty members from the English department, created a Web site to highlight faculty-driven service-learning initiatives and to provide resources for faculty interested in learning about service-learning (<http://www.service-learning.ohio-state.edu>). Service-learning course syllabi, bibliographies, faculty development materials, and descriptions of community-based projects are examples of information available on the Web site. We are now working on creating links to individual faculty Web pages and community sites and potentially to other community-based initiatives at the university.

We are currently in the process of collecting data about service-learning courses taught at the university through a Roundtable-designed survey. The survey was sent to all faculty at Ohio State and will enable us to catalog service-learning courses for dissemination among faculty, students, and community members interested in these courses. The survey included a commonly understood definition of service-learning and criteria for service-learning courses so as to increase visibility among those not knowledgeable about service-learning.

COURSE DEVELOPMENT

To support the increase in the number of service-learning courses offered at Ohio State, the Roundtable applied for and received a grant from the Campus Collaborative, a group of more than 40 academic areas around the university interested in teaching and learning in the neighborhoods surrounding the campus. The grant enabled the Roundtable to administer a faculty seed grant program for service-learning course development. The Roundtable issued a request for proposals to faculty for funding to support either new course development or revisions to existing courses. Applications asked for a description of how service-learning would be integrated into the course and the name of the community partner with whom they would be working. Although funding to each faculty member was minimal, they also gained access to a graduate student knowledgeable about service-learning who could help with all aspects of course design and implementation. In addition, they had the opportunity to join the Service-Learning Scholars Roundtable group, which resulted in 10 additional members from a diverse range of academic areas, including English, Spanish and Portuguese, theatre, human ecology, exercise science, education, and biochemistry.

Topics for discussion at our monthly meetings focused on issues of importance in designing service-learning courses, including working with community service sites, supervising student volunteers in the community, designing reflection that effectively connects academic course content with the service experience, assessing and evaluating student learning, and sustaining partnerships in the community after the course ends. Resources and technical assistance were provided for faculty, including sample course syllabi, references for research on service-learning by academic area, and copies of relevant articles.

NETWORKING

Perhaps most important, the Roundtable meetings provided a forum for faculty from all over the university to come together to talk about service-learning in particular, and teaching, learning, and community-based inquiry in general. Faculty were able to share successful strategies and stories as well as ask colleagues questions about areas in which they were less well versed or genuinely struggling. Many of the faculty commented on how infrequently such dialogue occurs at a large research university. In addition, foundations were laid through these discussions for faculty collaborations and interdisciplinary approaches to teaching, learning, and research connected to complex social issues—which perhaps is service learning scholarship at its best. For example, faculty from the theatre, sociology, and education programs discussed collaborating on the writing, producing, and performing of a play in urban schools addressing issues of alcohol and drug use and abuse. Students in sociology would research the issues involved, those in theatre would produce and perform the play, and education students would work with teachers and students in the schools to facilitate discussions in their classrooms about the play.

Another networking function the Roundtable performed was in the sharing of information about relevant grant opportunities, funding sources, professional development opportunities, and conferences. Attention was focused on individual faculty areas of expertise, on opportunities at Ohio State in areas with which some faculty may be less familiar, and on university-wide efforts to strengthen outreach and engagement. Because the membership of the Roundtable is so diverse, faculty were introduced to new avenues for publishing, funding, and resources.

THE SERVICE-LEARNING SCHOLARS ROUNDTABLE MODEL APPLIED TO TEACHER EDUCATION

Interest in fully integrating service-learning in teacher education programs is growing (Root, 1997). Perhaps most integral to the success of this effort is the knowledge, practice, and support of the university faculty teaching future teachers. Without such commitment and understanding, efforts to integrate service-learning in the teacher education curriculum are ad hoc in nature, sporadic, and low impact. In addition, the now widely acknowledged benefits and outcomes associated with service-learning in P-12 education will not be fully realized without careful

preparation and training for school teachers (Billig, 2000; Root, 1997; Wade, 1997a, 1997b; Wade & Yarbrough, 1997). In other words, for teachers to be knowledgeable about service-learning, the faculty who prepare teachers must be knowledgeable and comfortable with this pedagogy. To do so, however, requires not only faculty development in the teaching methodology of service-learning but also a significant change in how university faculty think about their work. The Service-Learning Scholars Roundtable provides one model that has proven to be effective in engaging faculty in the development of expertise in the theory and practice of service-learning. The following specific suggestions can be used to apply the roundtable model to teacher education programs interested in more fully integrating service-learning in the teacher preparation curriculum.

The roundtable model is entirely faculty driven and functioned as a grassroots effort; thus, commitment and buy-in were great. The Roundtable served as a mechanism for faculty around the university to gather around a common interest in effective teaching and community building in general and service-learning in particular. Each faculty member brought his or her own disciplinary perspective and area of expertise, as well as an interest in learning more about service-learning, to the dialogue. Faculty of the Roundtable then went back to their individual academic departments and spoke more persuasively and knowledgeably about the outcomes and benefits of service-learning, resulting in greater faculty interest and expanded visibility.

Likewise, teacher education programs adopting this model might begin by gathering all the faculty together who have an interest in service-learning or are currently using service-learning as an approach to teaching. Not only will doing so enable faculty to engage in dialogue with one another; the momentum for increased use of service-learning will also grow. Bringle and Hatcher (1995) point out that as more faculty develop service-learning courses, they will begin to affect the character of the curriculum, and eventually, they will become the "champions of service-learning that will make it an enduring feature of higher education" (p. 120). The roundtable model provides a vehicle for faculty to learn from one another, to garner increased support for service-learning pedagogy, and to expand course offerings with a service-learning component in the teacher preparation curriculum.

In addition to being a faculty-driven initiative, the roundtable model is multidisciplinary and collaborative in nature. Faculty from around the uni-

versity brought their own academic lenses to the process, but they also learned from their colleagues' perspectives, which resulted in new collaborations and innovative initiatives. Given the complexities of our times, an ability to craft meaningful educational and academic learning opportunities for students and to prepare students for this work requires multidisciplinary approaches. This outcome is the essence of service-learning pedagogy.

The roundtable model would produce similar results in a teacher education program. In fact, as Myers and Pickeral (1997) point out: "Teacher preparation faculty find themselves working with faculty from other departments because of the interdisciplinary nature of service-learning" (p. 35). When faculty from, for example, English education, literacy, reading, and cultural studies come together to discuss service-learning in teacher preparation, new possibilities emerge. These collaborations promote student learning, increase faculty networking, and connect the curriculum to community issues and needs.

Another application of the roundtable model to teacher education programs relates to community involvement and university-community partnerships. The benefits of university and P-12 partnerships cannot be understated, both in terms of educational reform and student learning. As Wade (1997a) concluded from her research on service-learning and student teacher empowerment, "We need more collaborative service-learning programs between public schools and higher education; both settings have useful strategies and ideas that can enrich learning for everyone involved" (p. 190). Pressures on both the schools and higher education will increase the likelihood of greater connections in the future, a dynamic both university faculty and P-12 teachers need to understand.

The faculty of the Roundtable came to understand the complexities of working with community and neighborhood organizations in the context of service-learning. They also developed an appreciation for the importance of developing authentic partnerships based on mutually defined goals and learning objectives with schools and community organizations as well as the time it takes to build such relationships. The roundtable approach connects faculty to the community in direct and effective ways and engages faculty in developing collaborative approaches to teaching and learning.

The application of the roundtable model to teacher education programs suggests the importance of faculty involvement in the community and schools to understand the complexities of issues. As faculty teach about

service-learning, they must model the principles of good practice for service-learning, which includes developing and sustaining reciprocal relationships and involving the community in the design and implementation of service-learning activities. This approach reconnects university faculty with the schools in direct and active ways. The roundtable model enables faculty to experience these complex issues and dynamics first hand.

IMPLICATIONS

One of the greatest strengths of the roundtable model is that it can be implemented by individual academic program areas, such as teacher education, or as a university-wide initiative. Regardless of the approach, the success of a roundtable depends on faculty interest and commitment combined with support and resources from academic administrators. The challenge is to set up the roundtable in such a way that the structure survives changing commitments of individual faculty. Participants of the roundtable may change, but the infrastructure and support for faculty initiatives must remain steady. For program areas such as teacher education, the roundtable model provides a strategy for intentionally engaging faculty in curriculum reform in a comprehensive and collaborative manner.

The membership of Ohio State's Roundtable comprised entirely faculty during the first several years because of our focus on understanding what would be required to engage more faculty in community-based inquiry and service-learning. We invited students and community members to specific meetings when their input was important to discussions about the potential benefits of service-learning to them. We believed that if the group were too big and broad in scope initially, we would not accomplish our objectives. We are now engaged in discussions about collaborating with other university and community groups and programs interested in service-learning approaches to teaching and community building. Our interest was not in excluding community and student voices from discussions, but in shoring up faculty commitment and interest before broadening the scope of inquiry and action of the Roundtable.

It is important to construct a roundtable as more than a group of faculty who come together for discussion around a common topic. The expectation for participation in the Service-Learning Scholars Roundtable is that changes in teaching and research will take place. The course development seed grant program helped move rhetoric to action as faculty

were awarded funding for the integration of service-learning in a course to be taught no later than a year after the monies are allocated. As faculty began to revise their courses, they came to the Roundtable meetings with specific questions about service-learning and community-based pedagogy. This dynamic created an ongoing interest among faculty in the Roundtable. In addition, faculty more familiar with service-learning shared their experiences, made suggestions, and provided testimonials about the challenges and transformative potential of service-learning in teaching and research.

CONCLUSION

The Service-Learning Scholars Roundtable model is not the only strategy for successfully integrating service-learning in the curriculum. But it is an effective model because it evolves from faculty grassroots efforts and, as a result, can be implemented at any higher education institution, in any academic area. The Roundtable provided an infrastructure to support faculty efforts and faculty development in service-learning and community-based inquiry. Such support and development included both formal programs and workshops, funding for course development, and opportunities to learn informally from colleagues. Faculty involved in the Roundtable noted that their participation invigorated their teaching, connected them with people and resources they had not known before, and enabled them to learn new knowledge and skills to apply to their teaching and research. Using the roundtable model to more fully integrate service-learning in teacher education programs holds the potential to vigorously connect university faculty to school reform and neighboring communities as well as to the teaching and research skills they are developing in their preservice teachers.

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CHAPTER 26

DEVELOPING RICH COLLABORATIONS BETWEEN SCHOOLS, UNIVERSITIES, AND COMMUNITY PARTNERS

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Developing successful collaborative service-learning ventures requires willing participants, continual monitoring and refining, and hard work. Truly rich collaborations are built on a base of solid communication and feature interpersonal trust and willingness to share responsibilities, criticism, and acclaim.

Through our work in collaborative projects with public schools, community agencies, and our university students, we have identified some key considerations to keep in mind for successful service-learning relationships. These ideas have emerged through our own work in projects that have ranged from collaborations with individual schools to district- and statewide consortia. Our most recent collaborative effort involved 20 community agencies, 35 preservice teachers from a secondary education program, human service students serving internships in community agencies, two eighth-grade core teachers, 12 parent volunteers, and 135 eighth-grade students who engaged in service-learning together. Reflecting on this and other service-learning collaborations and reexamining the emerging literature on collaboration led us to the ideas in this manuscript. We begin by providing a practical and theoretical definition of true collaboration. We then propose and explain 10 elements essential for successful collaboration: (a) clear communication; (b) shared goals/goal clarity; (c) strengths-based practice; (d) clear role expectations; (e) sensitivity to community partners; (f) liability and regulatory issues; (g) preparation for service; (h) reflection; (i) celebration; and (j) project evaluation. Whether establishing new partnerships or seeking to refine existing ones, considering these key elements will help to develop strong, lasting collaborations that will benefit both the community and your students.

DEFINING TRUE COLLABORATION

Various authors contend that collaboration is at an end of a continuum (Winer & Ray, 1994) or at the terminal stage of a process (Rubin, 1998). Collaboration is also viewed as a set of skills, values, and beliefs that can be taught (Anderson, Homan, & Lawson, in press; Lawson & Anderson, 1999; Rubin, 1998). Campus Compact (2000) has also defined stages of collaboration and elements essential for building collaborative partnerships. We synthesize these views to provide a definition of collaboration for this chapter. We believe that the emerging definition will provide a basis for practitioners who strive for a rich collaborative experience in their service-learning projects.

Winer and Ray's (1994) seminal work on collaboration provides a useful approach to examining and understanding that collaboration is a process that evolves. They use the metaphor of a journey to explain how collaborative ventures are formed, specifying three stages: cooperation, coordination, and, finally, collaboration. Our examination of our practices revealed that this model fits well with how service-learning collaborations typically develop, with the initial, fluid stages developing and then solidifying into true collaborations. Although community partners are a necessary element of service-learning, their roles are sometimes small and passive. To reach true collaboration, we must expand the role of community partners.

In Winer and Ray's model, cooperation is the first stage defined. It is marked by short-term, informal relationships with little interpersonal risk and no real synthesis between roles of collaborators. The agency and schools are very autonomous in identity and provision of resources. Cooperation activities may be one-time events or might involve limited volunteering at a community agency. In such a relationship, the agency would gain assistance, and there might be some shy but well-intended interactions with young people. The second stage, coordination, features more formal interpersonal and professional relationships. There may be written agreements between agencies and service-learning schools, the roles of individuals begin to develop, and communication becomes more of an issue. Leadership roles begin to emerge, with some elements of power implied and others granted. Agency partners may invest time preparing for service providers, but their role remains relatively passive as they welcome the volunteers but take on a limited role in facilitating their service. The identity of each involved partner begins to emerge but may

be invisible except to those directly involved. The relationship between partners is often friendly and warm but not sustained and lasting.

In the third stage, collaboration, relationships between schools and community partners are enriched substantially. Community partners receive training about facilitating service-learning projects and become involved in teaching students about their sites and issues, and formal written agreements define the total project and collaboration. A central organizational structure evolves, and a common mission and well-defined system of communication become necessary. These collaborative efforts build into long-term, sustained partnerships that benefit all partners. A highly evolved collaborative effort will create a group identity while concurrently maintaining separate partners' functions and powers.

Service-learning collaborations often attain the first or second stages defined in Winer and Ray's model. Our premise is that rich service-learning collaborations would attain the third stage, and we draw on the numerous and often unique couplings of universities, P-12 schools, and community agencies. Developing such collaborations requires sustained dedication and attention to some key factors.

ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS FOR SUCCESSFUL COLLABORATION

Successful collaborations require a variety of components that, taken separately, are useful but, addressed in concert, will result in more effective learning opportunities for our students and beneficial service for community partners. The 10 essential elements listed earlier are those that we and others consider critical for successful, rich service-learning collaborations.

ELEMENT 1. CLEAR COMMUNICATION

Although this principle may seem too obvious to list, we have found that our most successful projects feature clear and consistent modes of communication between partners. Each member of the collaborative relationship should know who all the key players are and what roles they are taking in the partnership, which can be a challenge when you are developing partnerships that might include multiple community agencies, more than one faculty member, and large numbers of students. Meeting each other face to face at the initiation of a project is an important step that will help each partner put names with faces; sustained collaborations feature practices that support frequent, often face-to-face communication (Campus Compact,

2000). A project "kick-off" can give partners a chance to make connections with one another before the initiation of a service-learning project.

Working with individual partners to determine their preferred mode of communication is also an important step to take early in developing your collaborative relationship. While university faculty and students may be comfortable communicating via electronic mail, some community and school partners may not have easy access to computer equipment to make this a viable means of communication. Do you prefer that partners leave you messages on your voice mail at home or at the office? What is the best way for you to reach your partners? In addition to establishing the preferred means of communication, be sensitive to appropriate and inappropriate times to reach your collaborating partners. It is difficult for teachers to communicate about projects in the middle of their teaching hours, so calling them during planning periods or before or after school is helpful. Many community agencies may be open only during specific hours or days of the week; knowing the schedules of your collaborating partners will help you to communicate successfully with them. Develop a list of key contact people with U.S. mail and e-mail addresses, phone numbers, and preferred modes of communication and times to be reached.

Once clear lines of communication have been established, use them! It is advisable to share important information using multiple means of communication; talking with partners and following up with written memos can help to avoid misunderstandings. Communicate frequently with all collaborating partners to ensure that the program is developing as planned and to help troubleshoot any problems that might arise. Establishing a formal means of sharing feedback—whether it is biweekly phone calls to check in or "concern cards" that partners could fill out at any time to share with program coordinators—will help to keep the flow of communication going.

ELEMENT 2. SHARED GOALS/GOAL CLARITY

One hallmark of successful collaboration is clearly established goals. In developing your collaborative partnerships, look for kindred souls who share your values and vision. Each partner in a large collaborative project must have a sense of why the project is important and what will be accomplished as a result. Ideally, your relationship should be founded on a shared vision and clearly articulated values (Campus Compact, 2000).

A set of sharply defined project goals helps to establish a clear focus for your work. It is also important that collaborating partners each have a set of their own personal, professional, and pedagogical goals to provide individual focus and ensure that each component of the collaborative partnership is consistent with the overall goals. It is important that partners share these goals with one another and enter into the partnership with the expectation that they will receive support in reaching both shared and personal goals.

One key issue to address during your discussion of goals is the service-to-learning balance for your program. How will each individual partner contribute to the learning components of the program? To the service? Setting and sharing goals for both learning and service can help each partner determine what his or her strongest contribution in each area will be. Inviting community partners to contribute to student learning in P-12 and university settings by speaking to your classes, identifying and sharing key readings, or establishing ongoing communication with students will help you to enhance your students' learning experience. Our students also have skills and knowledge to share with community partners. Helping elder care facility residents learn computer skills, working with preschoolers to write and publish children's books, and providing information through community resource centers are just a few examples. Successful service-learning programs rely on a balance of learning activities that support the service your students will provide.

ELEMENT 3. STRENGTHS-BASED PRACTICE

Traditionally, service-learning partnerships have been entered with the premise that community agencies possess needs that service-learning partners can help to meet. When service-learning is approached from this view, we assess, measure, and plan programs around needs. A shift in this view is emerging, with the publication of several influential works in the field of community development (see, for example, Homan, 1994; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993). This new view acknowledges that needs exist but assesses and promotes programming and planning based on the assets and strengths of individuals and communities. Adopting this approach means that we need to shift from "needs assessments" to develop asset mapping and capacity building instead (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993). It enables us to view the community as full partners in

the learning process and provides for a more integrated approach in the service experience (Moon, 1994).

In a rich collaborative approach, we would draw on the assets of all involved parties, including community agency personnel, clients, and students, thus moving us from cooperation/coordination to true collaboration. Because service happens at a site, the people who are there can become teachers who help our students to unravel the issues, understand the context in which they are working, and provide an understanding of the community in deep and lasting ways. In return, our students teach community members that young people are not all gang members who are disrespectful and uncaring.

The beauty of entering into a collaborative partnership is that it allows you to draw on the assets of other professionals and organizations to enhance your teaching. Working with partners enables you to develop multiple contacts in the community, explore and experiment with different teaching methods, benefit from the knowledge and expertise of a wide range of people, and accomplish tasks in new and exciting ways. Partners with a creative flair often come up with new ways of solving problems or the most exciting plans for celebration and assessment. Detail-oriented individuals are invaluable for keeping projects on track by addressing the multitude of logistical elements that timing, transportation, and communication can necessitate. Getting to know your collaborative partners through informal events and direct discussion about what each member can and will bring to the group will help you to determine the most comfortable and appropriate roles for each group member. In addition, using tools such as "capacity inventories" can help you to determine the most beneficial role for each individual (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993). Allowing individuals to contribute their talents in service-learning collaborations is closely related to community development, as both have an ultimate goal of developing people (Homan, 1994).

ELEMENT 4. CLEAR ROLE EXPECTATIONS

A well defined task structure and individual role definitions are essential for successful collaborations (National Service-Learning Cooperative, 1998). One of the challenges in bringing together groups of diverse collaborators from a variety of perspectives is to clearly identify the roles and responsibilities of each individual. Because service-learning programs can

often be very complex, attention to detail is a critical factor to ensure success. During the planning process, we have found that using timeline charts with tasks lined out in order of needed completion can be a very useful way of addressing this issue (see, for example, Harwood & Underhill, 2000).

Another aspect of this principle is to consider the roles of each individual during the service activities. It is important that P-12 students and pre-service teachers understand the expected behavior at each service site. Clearly determining who has the supervisory responsibility at each site is also critical. Are community partners willing to take an active role in supervising activities, or will students need to be self-directed? Answering this question clearly for each site will help you to establish the expectations for students. At the outset of the service work, it is helpful to have community partners provide a tour of the facility. In addition, explaining the ground rules for where students may go, how they should interact with people at the site, and any site-specific rules and regulations they need to observe will help students to have a more pleasant and fruitful experience.

ELEMENT 5. SENSITIVITY TO COMMUNITY PARTNERS

In working with your community partners in the planning stages of a project, keep in mind the schedules of each agency or organization. We learned that immediately after lunch, for instance, was not the most profitable time to have students visit with the elderly, many of whom may nap at those hours. A mission that provides meals for the homeless requested that our students come at certain hours so that more of their clients would have the opportunity to interact with young and enthusiastic people. Taking into account the daily and weekly schedules of each community partner will ensure that you schedule your service activities at appropriate and mutually beneficial times.

Sensitivity to partners, however, goes much deeper than recognizing their schedules. One of the key benefits of having students involved in service-learning is that they can gain a greater knowledge of community members who have varying needs and lives. Students often experience an uncomfortable cultural clash when they work in settings with which they are totally unfamiliar. The diverse cultures range from intergenerational projects in which youth work with the elderly, discovering the sometimes harsh reality of their lives, to the socioeconomic surprise when students

learn about poverty, hunger, and homelessness in their own backyards. Cultural competency can be taught on site in context; exposing students to diverse groups of people is what being in the community is about. All these issues generate the need to enrich the collaboration through teaching each other how to act, talk with, and respect one another.

Before sending students into the community to participate in projects, we must help them to understand what they might encounter and how to respond to it. Critical questions must be addressed: How candid are students about what they notice? Are they allowed to talk about older people and how they smell, talk, and do things more slowly? What do you teach your students about working in a mental health setting? How do they talk about it? Do you just hope nobody says anything too embarrassing? Teaching about the clients, patients, or residents of community agencies can help to lessen the weirdness that may be inherent for our students when they are exposed to the differences they encounter. By carefully examining the issues of confidentiality, liability, respect for dignity, and sometimes even legal issues that need to be researched when working with community groups, we can prepare our students to be more culturally sensitive in their new surroundings.

ELEMENT 6. LIABILITY AND REGULATORY ISSUES

Each participant in collaborative service-learning projects has his or her own set of liability and regulatory issues that must be addressed. Because a misstep in addressing any of these legal constraints may result in the termination of projects, it is critical that each partner determine the governing regulations and address them directly. At the early planning stages, each collaborative partner should research the regulations governing his or her part of the project to ensure that planned components do not conflict with guidelines set by school districts, university policies, or community agencies.

Increasing litigation related to liability issues in schools has heightened the importance of addressing potential legal issues at the outset of service-learning projects. If students will be leaving school grounds, district and school transportation policies must be followed, including gaining permission from parents. These policies are typically governed by district risk management offices. In our project, because parents and university students provided transportation for eighth graders to and from service sites, they were required to complete release forms for using their private vehi-

cles. We were required to satisfy university risk management policies related to transportation as well. The school district forms were therefore reviewed by our university risk management office.

Policies governing the use of volunteers in school classrooms and activities generally must also be addressed. In our projects, both parent volunteers and university students were required to complete volunteer forms, provide official fingerprints, and submit to background checks before their work with elementary, middle, or high school students. Involving school administrators and district officials in addressing legal issues provides collaborating teachers with additional protection.

Community partners also have liability and regulatory issues to consider. Sometimes individual agencies and organizations have their own permission forms or regulations governing volunteers at their site. Students who worked at one of our animal care facilities, for example, were required to sign additional forms provided by the agency that released the agency from liability should a student be injured by an animal. In another case, we were unable to provide proof of tuberculosis tests, which prevented us from working with one elder care facility. Work with your community partners early to identify and address any regulatory or liability issues they may have.

ELEMENT 7. PREPARATION FOR SERVICE

Each member of the collaborating team has responsibilities for preparation before the service activities begin. To help P-12 students put their service-learning experiences into context, it is important that they explore local issues and study the needs of the community before defining and implementing service plans. A number of learning activities, ranging from discussions of current events in class to extended research using community and Internet resources, can prepare students for their service activities. Once they have background information about community needs and organizations, they can begin to develop their service plans. Appropriate orientation information helps students become academically and emotionally prepared for service experiences (Seigel, 1997).

Service activities should be organized with the intent of serving real needs in the community while at the same time allowing students to choose projects. Because it may be logistically impossible to guarantee full student choice in defining projects, teachers need to take a role in shap-

ing their expectations realistically. In some of our projects, for example, we found that the local humane society and animal shelters had regulations that made it impossible for middle school students to work with pets and animals in those settings. Similarly, although we had students who wanted to work with young children in hospital wards, we found that it was not possible. Having other options ready for students enabled us to help them match their desired areas of service with appropriate community partners and locations.

University students who have worked in our collaborative partnerships have also prepared for service by learning about community issues and agencies. In addition, providing them with background information about the pedagogical approach of service-learning has been crucial to their understanding of the projects. University students who will be working in collaboration with P-12 students also need support to understand their role in the project and how to work with collaborating teachers and their students. Because working at service sites is typically a very different type of teaching from the classroom teaching our students have experienced, we have found that they need extra support to be successful. Handouts with hints for establishing rapport with students on the first day and weekly seminars in which our students process their experiences have been critical components to ensuring their success. We have found that icebreakers are needed to put university and P-12 students at ease about working with one another. Role playing through potential emergency, disciplinary, and logistical problems with university students may help them feel more prepared to address issues that may arise on site while they are working with students.

Working closely with community partners to ensure that they are ready for students to work with them is also critical. We as educators know that young people need structure. An assessment of community partners' needs and corresponding developmentally appropriate student service activities should be clearly defined and communicated. It is important for P-12 teachers and university professors to realistically assess their students' capabilities and work with community partners to ensure their students' talents are put to use. Both the agencies' and students' experiences will be far more successful if the site coordinators plan for the visits and have organized tasks waiting for students upon their arrival. Community partners need help to understand your project goals and to structure tasks that

will meet those goals while enabling your students to provide helpful, authentic service. They also possess a wealth of information that can help you and your students plan for activities on site. Our elder care partners, for instance, have suggested that we have our students bring objects or books that interest them to help them break the ice in getting conversations started. Students who worked in elementary schools arrived ready with supplies for a craft project to help them establish rapport with young children. Knowing about the planned activities for each site before the beginning of service will help you to communicate your expectations to students and help them feel more at ease during their initial visits.

ELEMENT 8. REFLECTION

Ongoing reflection is an essential component of any service-learning project (see Eyler, Giles, & Schmiede, 1996). Students engaged in service-learning often experience new and exciting things in the field-and sometimes things that are uncomfortable for them. Using a variety of reflection techniques helps students make sense of their experiences and leads to real learning. Written reflections, discussions, creative writing, or performances by students also help to strengthen collaborative efforts. Reading or listening to students' reflective comments helps program directors to understand both the strengths and weaknesses of their collaborative approach. Dealing with issues that arise during reflection in a timely manner can help to guide the service-learning experience for students and community partners in ways that will strengthen rather than destroy collaborative efforts.

It is also important to invite your community collaborators to join you in the reflective process. Regular conversations enable community partners to share their perspectives on how the program is progressing. Asking them for comments and suggestions will enable you to better guide your students in their approaches to service. Using the information garnered from both students and community partners will help you to assess if your collaboration is a viable one. On occasion, this feedback has helped us to determine that students of certain ages are not appropriate matches for some agencies and their needs; determining it early in projects has helped us to make appropriate adjustments to better suit the needs of our partners and students.

ELEMENT 9. CELEBRATION

The most meaningful celebrations of service-learning projects involve all members of the collaboration. Planning an event during which individual and collective contributions are acknowledged, student learning is highlighted, and appropriate people are thanked for their efforts will help all collaborating parties bring closure to the experience. Visual displays of accomplishments, including photographs, videotapes, and students' completed projects, will add impact to your event. Performances and presentations by students of their learning help to highlight the outcomes of your work and give students a strong sense of accomplishment. Having community partners share their perspectives can help to reconnect them with students; their attendance at celebrations also helps to underscore the important (yet often uncelebrated) contributions they have made to the overall project. Distributing certificates of achievement, thank you cards, and gifts at celebrations heightens the festive atmosphere.

Inviting school administrators, such as principals and district officials, and members of the school board can help you to share your success with others in ways that will support further collaborative efforts. Inviting press to cover your service activities throughout the project and during the celebration can help you to inform the community at large of your accomplishments as well.

ELEMENT 10. PROJECT EVALUATION

Project evaluations should strike a balance between internal and external evaluations and should be focused on the initially defined outcomes for involved partners (Campus Compact, 2000). Our most successful collaborative efforts have grown and developed through a process of reflection on our successes and failures. Program and project evaluations help us to continually improve our collaborative approaches. Our P-12 partners have used written student reflections, informal discussions with students, pre- and postassessments, and final student projects as measures to evaluate their part of the collaboration. We have used university students' written reflections, weekly seminar discussions, and pre- and postproject assessments to help us shape and refine our projects.

Although researchers have largely neglected community partners in assessing the effects of service-learning (Conrad & Hedin, 1991), community partners are essential in the evaluation process because they have

a direct stake in the outcomes of the project and their own perspectives to share (Shumer, 1997). We have invited our community partners to evaluate our students' contributions through a partner survey administered at the end of our collaboration. Continued discussion with our students, collaborating teachers, and community partners helps us to identify potential problem areas and build on the strengths of our projects.

SUMMARY

Working in truly collaborative service-learning efforts is tremendously rewarding and revitalizing. Although facilitating these collaborations is intense work, the benefits certainly make it worthwhile. The synergy that develops between collaborating partners can serve to refresh each one in his or her approach to the profession. Working with our P-12 teachers and community partners has given us new ways of thinking about our own programs and teaching approaches. Collaboration in all elements of our service-learning approach, from the initial planning through the implementation, celebration, and evaluation of the project, enriched our skills and enabled us to facilitate a project that none of us could have accomplished on our own.

The complexity of collaborative approaches also provides a plethora of learning opportunities for the students who are involved. Preservice teachers and P-12 students engaged in service-learning with community partners begin to view schooling as a community-oriented endeavor and become aware of agencies and the services provided by them (Wade & Anderson, 1996). Our university students learned about P-12 students, teaching, themselves, and community resources. The P-12 students not only learned about issues and community needs but also provided an education for our collaborators about the positive potential of young people in our society.

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CHAPTER 27

MULTICULTURAL SERVICE-LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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A teacher education program that incorporates effective multicultural service-learning opportunities can provide compelling learning experiences for preservice teachers and may orient them positively to the communities where they will teach. In our culturally diverse and democratic society, it is imperative that service-learning emphasize equality and social justice. A multicultural education approach is a critical component in service-learning programs. Service-learning can too easily reinforce inequality without the theoretical underpinnings provided by a concerted analysis of power and oppression in the service experience. Helping others and doing good are valuable activities in their own right. Without a multicultural perspective, however, service-learning can perpetuate racist, sexist, or classist assumptions about others in a "do good" or "charity" orientation.

Preservice teachers often do not understand the social dynamics of poverty and racism and may accept such circumstances as a given. This situation is a special danger for predominantly White teacher education students who engage in service experiences in communities of color. Their abilities to visualize inequality and to imagine fundamental change often are limited. Without a multicultural context, programs may foster an attitude of paternalism on the part of the server and one of dependence on the part of those served. Without an intentional focus on race and culture in the service experience, preservice teachers may miss the opportunity to learn about issues surrounding diversity, oppression, and social justice. The incorporation of a multicultural perspective into service-learning experiences assists preservice teachers in examining assumptions about the status quo and in thinking critically about the nature of social justice.

An effective multicultural education approach can offer three critical aspects that assist service-learning programs. First, it can be an important

avenue for helping preservice teachers expand their "emotional comfort zones" (Dahms, 1994, p. 92), particularly in exploring issues of cultural diversity. Through collaboration with the community, preservice teachers can begin to construct cross-cultural relations of respect and trust. Further, they can begin to appreciate funds of knowledge (Moll, 1992) that exist in homes and think about connections between homes and schools.

Second, preservice teachers can gain an increasing ability to view the world from multiple perspectives. The complexity of today's world requires educators who are culturally literate and adept at seeing situations through more than one cultural lens. This flexibility assists teachers in creating classrooms in which all students are equally valued, feel safe, and are provided equal opportunities to develop to their fullest potential.

Third, a multicultural approach can provide the opportunity to reflect on one's own social position in the world in relation to others. At the heart of a multicultural education approach is an intentional focus on issues of social inequality, particularly the role that oppression and social power play in the perpetuation of inequitable social arrangements. Oppression is reinforced by the disempowerment of subordinated or targeted groups by members of dominant or privileged groups. The goal of a multicultural education approach is to achieve equal participation of all groups in society.

Most crucially, multicultural education can provide a vehicle to connect service-learning to social justice. It can provide the theory and application of antiracist, antioppression ideology and thus expand the practice of service-learning beyond "doing good." Service-learning can help preservice teachers realize that individual effort is often not enough to make a difference. Teacher educators and community members need to form powerful cross-cultural groups to bring about change. Service-learning can also help preservice teachers learn about their own beliefs and those of others who are different, and analyze issues of power and privilege. Teachers need these attitudes and skills to work effectively with all students.

This chapter on service-learning for multicultural education was written by three White women. Why? As White women, we are keenly aware of the racial privileges that accrue to Whites in the United States. As teacher education faculty, we take seriously our responsibility to help our preservice teachers to comprehend diversity, inequality, and equity and to work to bring about more fair and affirmative classrooms and schools. We

believe that both community service-learning and multicultural education work together in the realization of these goals.

The remainder of this chapter examines the research literature on multicultural service-learning in teacher education, offers a set of principles for effective programs, and describes a case in which these principles were put into practice. The intent of this chapter is to provide teacher educators with a rationale and set of principles for the development of service-learning experiences that complement multicultural education for preservice teachers.

RESEARCH ON MULTICULTURAL SERVICE-LEARNING IN PRESERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

While the literature is not extensive at this point, several studies have focused on the benefits and limitations of service-learning activities as part of multicultural preparation for preservice teachers. Positive findings include increased awareness of diversity, acceptance and affirmation of children of color, critique of prior assumptions and beliefs, and commitment to teaching diverse youth. Teacher educators' attempts to foster preservice teachers' questioning of the larger societal context and commitment to social activism have met with mixed success.

With respect to the following review of the literature, it is important to note that almost all of these studies were conducted by teacher educators studying their own students and that the vast majority of the data are self-reported (e.g., journals, course assignments, interviews). Discerning readers will note that both of these facts may lead to reports that tilt toward positive outcomes.

AWARENESS OF DIVERSE YOUTH

The most frequent finding of studies of preservice teachers' service-learning involvement in diverse community settings is teachers' increased awareness of youth who are culturally different from themselves (Beyer, 1991; Bollin, 1996; Boyle-Baise, 1998; Boyle-Baise with Elliom, in press; De Jong & Groomes, 1996; Fuller, 1998; Hones, 1997, 1998; Kwartler, 1993; McKenna & Ward, 1996; Seigel, 1994; Sleeter, 1988; Tellez, Hlebowitsh, Cohen, & Norwood, 1995; Vadeboncoeur, Rahm, Aguilera, & Le Compte, 1996; Wade, 1993, 1995). For example, Hones (1997) found that preservice teachers who worked in diverse community settings heightened their awareness of others and subsequently sought ways to

build bridges to diverse youth. Twenty hours of service in urban social service agencies challenged other teacher education students' notions of poverty and increased their understanding of urban concerns (Tellez et al., 1995). Boyle-Baise (1998) noted that most preservice teachers saw service-learning with children of color as "getting exposed" and "becoming more aware," and McKenna and Ward (1996) observed a recurrent theme in preservice teachers' logs and discussions: a new awareness of diversity issues and how they impact student learning.

ACCEPTING OR AFFIRMING OTHERS

Several researchers asserted that some preservice teachers went beyond increased awareness to acceptance and, in some cases, affirmation of youth of color, their lifestyles, and their communities (Bollin, 1996; Hones, 1997; Seigel, 1994; Tellez et al., 1995). Boyle-Baise (1997) asserted that, for some students, general awareness moved to a level of acceptance, often expressed as a willingness to diversify curriculum or instruction. Fuller (1998) noted that most of her preservice teachers, after working in a Salvation Army or Native American tutoring program, said they could see themselves teaching diverse children, and a few said they would actively seek positions in classrooms that included children of color or children living in poverty.

AWARENESS OF SELF AND PERSONAL BELIEFS

As preservice teachers confronted the realities of diverse students' lives, some developed a new awareness of themselves and began to question their prior assumptions and beliefs. Bollin (1996) noted that "journals prompted self-reflection and resulted in much spontaneous examination of prior negative beliefs and attitudes towards minorities that students were unaware they harbored" (p. 70). Kwartler (1993) noted that students who began a service-learning experience with negative views about the homeless began to rethink their values and beliefs as a result of their firsthand contact. In two other studies, teacher education students who worked with youth from cultures different from their own became aware of their prejudices (Boyle-Baise, 1998; Seigel, 1994). In a service-learning program that focused on having teacher education students analyze how at risk situations associated with poverty could influence development (particularly academic motivation and achievement) in school-age children, preservice teachers

began to understand their own beliefs and prejudices (De Jong & Groomes, 1996). O'Grady (1997) found that assisting Latino newcomers in rural communities aided White teachers' understanding of their own whiteness, especially consideration of their life experience as the norm.

QUESTIONING SOCIETAL CONTEXTS

Findings on teacher education students' abilities to think about the larger societal context's influencing people's lives were mixed. Researchers noted limitations in some preservice teachers' abilities to question the economic aspects of living in poverty (Boyle-Baise, 1998) or to engage in serious reflection about diversity issues (Hones, 1998) as a result of their service involvement. Boyle-Baise (1998; see also Boyle-Baise, in press) noted that preservice teachers' efforts to debunk their stereotypes were stalled by notions of cultural deficiency, though some students began to unravel the workings of poverty and challenged the notion that low-income parents do not care.

Others noted service-learning's contribution to teacher education students' complexity of thinking about social problems (Batchelder & Root, 1994; Vadeboncoeur et al., 1996). In a study based on surveys, students who categorized others stereotypically developed more thoughtful and complex responses by the end of the semester (Vadeboncoeur et al., 1996). Vadeboncoeur and her colleagues observed that "by the end of the semester, most students attributed social problems to social structural factors and institutionalized patterns of differential treatment rather than to individual characteristics or personality traits" (p. 195).

These same researchers, however, also noted that "although consciousness raising was achieved by most students, and personal growth was evident, few students really increased their level of social activism by the end of the class" (Vadeboncoeur et al., 1996, p. 201). Both Fuller (1998) and Hones (1997, 1998) also noted the variable success achieved with regard to preservice teachers' abilities and willingness to question larger social and political issues. "While some students questioned their stereotypes, others appreciated the service-learning project for putting them in contact with the lives of diverse children, but failed to challenge many of their preconceptions of who was to blame when such children 'failed' in school and in life" (Hones, 1997, p. 18). Boyle-Baise with Elliom (in press) also noted that some students confirmed their preexisting stereotypes with regard to problematic family lives.

UNEVEN DEVELOPMENT

While preservice teachers in most cases seemed to develop cultural consciousness and affirm cultural diversity as a result of their service-learning experiences with children of color, growth varied widely among individuals. Several researchers suggest that this variation may be partly the result of preservice teachers' prior experiences (Bollin, 1996; Boyle-Baise with Elliom, in press). Those with little to no direct experience with cultural diversity or poverty may develop some awareness and/or acceptance; those with more extensive prior involvement may be more open to examining their own attitudes and questioning unjust aspects of society.

Prospective teachers' emotional experiences may also potentially contribute to their learning. Both Wade (1995) and Boyle-Baise (1997) noted that some students experienced frustration, sadness, or feelings of being overwhelmed as they encountered children and families with many needs. Wade (1993) also observed some students' initial feelings of confusion and fear as they embarked on getting involved with "different" others. Most students in these studies, however, overcame their anxieties to find value and personal satisfaction in their service-learning experience.

If preservice teachers' learning from their experiences with diverse communities depends in part on their prior experience and comfort in such situations, it stands to reason that providing teacher education students with multiple high quality service-learning opportunities in diverse settings will likely contribute to their willingness and abilities to work in diverse and/or low-income settings. The last part of this chapter discusses essential principles and practices for multicultural service-learning field experiences.

PRINCIPLES FOR PRACTICE

The following aims and principles are interdependent and centered around the notion of "connections." Service-learning should help preservice teachers to make connections across cultural, economic, and social borders; construct alliances with diverse communities, families, and youth; and build bridges between homes and schools.

AIMS

Several aims undergird our principles of practice: coalition, community building, critical consciousness, and commitment to equity. Coalition brings to mind strong alliances that cross borders. It acknowledges the

challenge of cross-group endeavors, and it emphasizes the goal of working with, not for, others. Community building focuses on expanding the sense of who “we” are. It underscores the reconsideration of “our” community, and it stresses working toward common good(s). Critical consciousness aims at the development of a critical stance toward social reality. It centers around the examination of social myths, stereotypes, and structures of inequality. Commitment to equity highlights affirmative action. It refers to advocacy for fair, just, and excellent education, especially for the youth and families one serves as teacher.

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES

Partnership. Relations between teacher educators and community representatives should exemplify true partnerships. Partnership resonates with meanings; “partners” can act jointly in a myriad of ways to develop, implement, and assess service-learning efforts. Partnership usually involves crossing borders: Teacher educators and community representatives step outside their comfort zones to work directly in community or university contexts (Hayes & Cuban, 1997). For example, joint development of the service-learning aspect of a course involves crossing physical borders to meet at community and university sites. Further, collaborative work necessitates crossing cultural and economic borders to develop shared meanings and purposes. Often, it is too easy for teacher educators to dominate discussions with our versions of need. A more inclusive, facilitative, cooperative stance toward leadership supports the notion of partnership advanced here.

Connectedness. Teacher educators should build alliances with community organizations and exemplify respect for them as significant learning sites. A sense of joint responsibility for the education of youth should underlie these relationships; communities and families as well as teachers and schools are perceived as significant educators for youth. For example, the use of “funds of knowledge” (Moll, 1992) to denote the wisdom and expertise held in families can help preservice teachers acknowledge learning that takes place outside the school. Further, preservice teachers can recognize their responsibility to tap into this wisdom and practice as part of culturally relevant pedagogy (see, e.g., Ladson-Billings, 1994). To promote a “resource” view of neighborhoods as sites with self-help strategies and local wisdom, field placements should be selected carefully. We have learned that some sites tend to view youth and families through a deficit

lens, as “needy” people, rather than through an affirmative lens, as people with diverse resources.

Critique. A critical orientation to the status quo, especially to one’s assumptions about social realities, should underpin service-learning experiences. Thoughtfully structured reflective activities promote critical views and should be a fundamental aspect of service-learning. The inclusion of community partners in reflective exercises can help preservice teachers grasp standpoints divergent from their own and recognize social impediments to one’s life goals. In our experience, for example, preservice teachers often denigrated parents for “dumping” children in low-cost after-school care programs. Community partners helped debunk this notion through explanations of low-wage work, safety concerns for children, and costs of child care. Teacher educators can use these moments to spur critique about social inequities, for example, about expensive job training such as preservice teachers’ own collegiate opportunities.

Activism. Teacher educators should explicitly connect field experiences with concepts and practices key to multicultural education. Further, they should clearly articulate goals for multicultural education to community partners and work with them to develop field activities that support connectedness, community building, and coalition. Moreover, preservice teachers should be prompted to consider ways in which service-learning informs their understandings of and plans for equitable teaching. Culturally relevant teaching exemplifies this principle. Prospective teachers have special opportunities to practice good teaching for all children and to advocate for the youth in their charge. In our experience, we have learned that community partners need to fully grasp our aims as multicultural educators. Usually, our partners suggested interesting activities that supported these aims. For example, community partners facilitated tutoring and shadowing experiences that connected preservice teachers directly and substantially to youth and families.

The accompanying case illustrates several of our aims and principles. Coalition and partnership were realized as my community liaisons and I crossed institutional, cultural, and social borders to act jointly as course instructors. Community building and connectedness were fostered through the acknowledgment of local responses to preservice teacher’s concerns and questions. Further, all parties worked together to better understand diverse communities and families. Critical consciousness, as a sense

CASE STUDY

Over a 4-year period, as part of my multicultural education course, I created service-learning partnerships with diverse members of the community. During that time, I interacted with a number of community organizations, but all did not "work out." Several organizations promoted compensatory attitudes toward low-income youth and/or limited direct involvement of preservice teachers in their programs. Slowly, I developed trustful alliances with organizations that participated over the long term. Preservice teachers were carefully monitored, community colleagues were kept well informed, and service-learning activities were adjusted when needed.

At the time of writing this case, five community partners assisted with the service-learning project. The partners were leaders in local churches, community centers, and preschool programs that served culturally diverse and/or low-income populations. The partners helped to develop, implement, and assess the service-learning experience. As one aspect of the experience, partners participated strongly in reflective activities. They read and commented on reflective essays written by preservice teachers at the beginning, middle, and end of their service-learning experience. They served as leaders for three reflective class discussions in the same time frame. For these sessions, the community partners and I wrote discussion questions, generated from the reflective essays. My questions, however, served as a backup. I assisted in helping the discussion flow, asking for elucidation of a point, and the like.

The comments made by community partners on reflective papers often varied considerably from my own. The partners offered information about local situations, whereas I connected field experiences with multicultural education concepts. In discussions, community partners challenged students' assumptions about racism, ethnicity, and poverty in more powerful and personal ways than I could alone.

For example, several preservice teachers denigrated a low-income neighborhood; they noted that children were left alone to fend for themselves. Their impressions were countered by a community partner, a local pastor for a predominantly Black church. She explained that her daughter was on her own in the neighborhood, but not alone. She felt confident that her daughter was safe; neighbors would watch out for her and community center programs were nearby. I asked the community partner to consider reasons for the sense of community in her neighborhood. The pastor then spoke about ways in which racism, poverty, and geographic isolation impacted the community. Her comments were accentuated by remarks of one preservice teacher, a first-generation college student from a low-income family who lived in the neighborhood. She shared an incident in which neighbors assisted a child in distress while the child's mother was at work. While a professor can make similar points, they become real when voiced by people who live through such situations.

of social critique, was developed through reflective writings, commentaries, and related discussions. Significantly, community partners collaborated in these activities and prompted critical views. This impetus aimed to generate commitment to equity and activism, rather than to exemplify it. It is hoped that these reflective exercises fostered appreciation for diverse views and grounded community sensitive stances toward future teaching.

CONCLUSION

Teachers in the 21st century will increasingly teach children from diverse backgrounds. Service-learning experiences set in culturally diverse and/or low-income contexts and underpinned by multicultural education aims and concepts can provide a largely White preservice teacher population with the needed skills, values, and attitudes to work affirmatively with children and families of color. As preservice teachers work with and for diverse families and youth, they will learn the importance of coalition building for bringing about social change. Teacher educators who incorporate partnership, connectedness, critique, and activism in their multicultural service-learning programs are taking on an important effort for the future of teachers and children in our diverse, democratic society. Through critique of dominant norms and assumptions about children, schooling, and community and development of culturally sensitive perspectives on teaching and learning, our future teachers will be more readily prepared to assist all youth in developing to their fullest potential.

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CHAPTER 28

TEACHING THE PEDAGOGY OF
SERVICE-LEARNING

■ JANE P. CALLAHAN, TERRI DAVIS, AND DON HILL

This penny project kind of blew me away. We started with the idea of helping people from other parts of the world less lucky than Americans. By the end of the project we had connected it to math, geography, economics, science, and history and a bunch of skills including public speaking and small-group problem solving. By the time that we decided to send the collected money to help the victims of the Honduras hurricanes, we had collected 4,107 pennies. I will never forget the back to school parent's night when my students made their 30-minute presentation on the government and culture of Honduras and the [cause] of hurricanes. Parents were far more impressed by the quality of student learning than the amount of money raised. [A first-year third-grade teacher]

The highlight of my year was the service-learning project in my 11th-grade English composition course. Several students had brothers and sisters attending Los Rios Elementary school, which didn't have a library or many reading books. We decided as a group to develop listening and narrative writing skills by writing stories based on interviews of neighborhood adults and then to read the stories to second and third graders. After the second and third graders created illustrations for the stories, we created small book drafts in both English and the native language, edited the books for correct language, and printed five copies of each for the Los Rios portable library. I couldn't believe how excited my students became about writing and how awesome they were as editors. [A first-year high school English teacher]

How can we as teacher educators prepare our students to have the confidence, knowledge, and skill to follow in the footsteps of these two new teachers and to introduce service-learning in their first year of teaching? Education

professors across America have begun to develop effective strategies to meet this pedagogical challenge. This chapter organizes the process and practice of teaching service-learning into four elements—connections between service-learning and existing teacher education program goals and school missions, opportunities for teacher candidates to participate in service-learning activities, systematic instruction in the use of service-learning, and structured reflection and self-reflection—and illustrates general comments on these elements with specific examples from a variety of institutional contexts.

Service-learning is a process in which learning is enhanced by doing service. Service contributes to learning in two distinct but related ways: People learn well when doing service because direct service combined with thoughtful reflection is a good teacher and a terrific motivator. Service-learning is a two-way street. Instead of a simple process where a student provides service to enhance his or her classroom learning, we see a multilayered sequential process built on reciprocity of both service and learning. For example, a student might serve an adult by tutoring him in reading. The adult in turn serves the student by providing an opportunity for the student to deepen his understanding of the reading and to experience the thrill of helping someone become more literate. This kind of reciprocal interaction is the essence of service-learning.

To prepare teacher candidates to use service-learning, preservice teacher education programs should provide a structure for teaching the pedagogy of service-learning. The word “pedagogy” means the art or profession of teaching; the pedagogy of service-learning means helping teacher candidates learn about the steps in developing a service-learning project that integrates service with their curriculum. For maximum effectiveness, this structure should include the four core elements listed above and discussed in the following paragraphs.

CONNECTIONS BETWEEN SERVICE-LEARNING AND EXISTING TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM GOALS

Service-learning should connect to and enhance a program’s guiding philosophy and mission. In programs where the connection between the service outcomes and the existing program goals has been thoughtfully considered, service-learning has become an integral part of the program.

At Lesley College in Cambridge, Massachusetts, service-learning is inextricably connected to the program philosophy of helping teacher candidates

develop a sensitivity to and understanding of issues of social justice. Several service-learning project assignments and subsequent reflection exercises are designed around addressing this program goal. For example, in an early childhood class, teacher candidates participate in a fieldwork experience one day per week. One assignment asks students to assess classroom assets and needs and develop individual service projects that provide the classroom with experiences that support student learning and meet course objectives. As part of this assignment, students consider the relevant social issues that affect program development and reflect on how the project might impact the classroom and students in relation to the issues considered.

Similarly, several colleges embrace the mission of preparing citizens to become effectively engaged in civic life. Service-learning is a powerful strategy for addressing this goal, and explicitly connecting service-learning to this often neglected but established institutional mission helps provide the kind of legitimacy that sustained reform requires.

In addition to a program's guiding philosophy and mission, teacher education program development is structured by state program standards, legislative mandates, and national and state professional teaching standards. Faculty should review the specific standards that govern the program and determine how the integration of service-learning will provide evidence to meet particular standards or help satisfy pressing mandates. The program at California State University-Chico illustrates how service-learning projects attain this goal. Teacher education programs in California are responsible for preparing their multiple-subject (elementary education) candidates in the area of teaching reading. In 1998, all teacher education programs were required by state law to submit a plan for how the program would prepare candidates to master this important skill. In addition, the California legislature determined that all candidates should take an examination, the RICA (Reading Instruction Competence Assessment), to assess the candidate's ability to teach reading before earning the multiple-subject credential. Service-learning opportunities abound in literacy education, and activities such as tutoring students in America Reads programs and participating in adult literacy and community library programs concurrently assist candidates in applying knowledge needed in the teaching of reading as well as for passing the RICA. In this way, service-learning supports teacher candidates in applying knowledge, practicing skills, and preparing for a required evaluation necessary for final state certification.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR TEACHER CANDIDATES TO PARTICIPATE IN SERVICE-LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The power and value of service-learning are difficult to comprehend and appreciate without experiencing it. Before examining service-learning theory and pedagogy, teacher education candidates therefore need to experience service for themselves and be shown its power and effectiveness. Ideally, teacher candidates should have service experiences that will provide opportunities to work in the community, reflect on that work, and make connections to prior knowledge. In this way, experience and service will be appreciated as a strategy that enhances learning and welcomed as an approach to use with P-12 students.

In some cases, students come into the program having had service experiences before entering college. These experiences can be used to build a base for discussion of what service-learning means. It is here that preservice teachers can begin to develop a sense of the connections between experience and learning and consider individual learning experiences that were particularly meaningful for them. In other cases, it might be necessary to have students enroll in core or introductory education courses that include a service experience or to suggest that students participate in some kind of service before beginning required education courses where service-learning pedagogy is taught. College and university service and volunteer offices can often help place students in community agencies and school programs that provide initial service experiences. Whether the students are engaged in service as part of an initial course or they come to the teacher education program with service experience, reflection is critical for making connections between service and elements of meaningful learning. Without these opportunities, students may not see the value of service-learning and not be motivated to integrate it in their set of teaching skills. A structured set of reflection questions can help to guide students' learning. Arnold (1995) provides examples of questions that can encourage students to examine experiences, lead them through a more complete learning cycle, and help develop a more insightful understanding of the processes at work in service-learning (see Appendix B for examples of reflective questions). The following reflective response, from a second-year student after engaging in four months of service in a state developmental center, was to a question designed to help teacher candidates become more aware of characteristics of students with disabilities.

I discovered the distinct difference between knowing something and experiencing something. I had been told that many people have combinations of disabilities, yet experiencing it was more educational. I discovered that reading about varying degrees of mental retardation doesn't really tell the entire story. Now I have a better grasp of what the term means. Peggy is mentally retarded, but could communicate clearly with the use of signs, knew how to act appropriately in public, and had a job that consisted of fixing wheelchairs. Maggie on the other hand has no communication skills, runs around wildly when not restrained in a wheelchair, and had a job of peeling labels off plastic bags. Each was an individual; both had the same label of mental retardation.

This comment demonstrates how one teacher candidate appreciates not only her service experience and what she learned from it but also the way in which the learning took place.

SYSTEMATIC INSTRUCTION IN THE USE OF SERVICE-LEARNING

Ensuring that teacher candidates can use service-learning in P-12 classrooms requires that teacher education faculty systematically introduce the concept of service-learning, present the components of the development of a service-learning project, design assignments and activities that support understanding of how to use the strategy, and provide opportunities for completing these activities in P-12 classrooms. This section provides recommendations for including service-learning pedagogy in teacher education courses and offers examples of assignments and activities to illustrate suggested components of instruction. Although we realize there are often barriers to including all of the components in a teacher education program, we have included the elements we feel are important. Faculty may initially choose to include only some of the components presented, depending on course, programmatic, or institutional restrictions.

INTRODUCE TEACHER CANDIDATES TO SERVICE-LEARNING

The most effective way to introduce service-learning is to ask students about their service experiences and make connections to their knowledge of experiential, contextual, and situated learning theories. Discussion will provide helpful background for introducing definitions of service-learning.

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ing and clarifying the key differences between community service and service-learning. In addition, it will help candidates draw relationships between learning theories and service-learning. It is also the time to introduce the elements of high quality service-learning instruction.

An activity particularly useful for helping students to understand the elements of effective service-learning projects is a quadrant exercise developed by the Service Learning 2000 Center (see Appendix B). The instructor uses a quadrant to illustrate differences between community service and service-learning and then asks students to use the quadrant to analyze brief descriptions of service-oriented projects. This exercise deals with two key elements of high quality service-learning: the integration of service and learning and the provision of a service that meets a community need. After the distinction between community service and service-learning is made clear, the other five elements of high quality service-learning can be introduced with a one-page handout and applied through analysis of a more comprehensive case study. These two activities provide opportunities for preservice teachers to be introduced to a variety of service-learning projects and to evaluate elements critical for student learning. In addition, it allows faculty to demonstrate that all projects are not perfect, helping students to see from the beginning that they may have to make some compromises when they begin to develop projects of their own.

TEACH THE COMPONENTS OF PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

Although teacher candidates may have had opportunities to participate in service-learning activities and discuss theories that connect the strategy to other teaching methods, they need to be systematically taught about the components of project development and provided with opportunities to think about each component and how it contributes to student learning. Understanding service-learning in a general sense is not sufficient to help teachers construct effective service-learning projects. The required systematic instruction in most cases is best accomplished in a methods or other class that has an accompanying field experience, but it may be included in a variety of other courses that are part of a typical education program.

While there are many ways to order the development components of a service-learning project, the following steps will assist beginning service-learning practitioners and faculty integrate the pedagogy in teacher edu-

cation courses: community assessment, project development, project implementation, reflection, evaluation, and celebration and recognition.

Community Assessment. This initial component sets the stage for the project and accomplishes two very important things. It teaches the significance of having community members and those planning the service-learning project involved in assessing community assets and needs and shows teacher candidates some methods for helping students take ownership for the project from the beginning. Service-learning is a reciprocal process, and because of this reciprocity, teacher candidates need to understand the importance of developing an appreciation of the values, culture, and traditions of the community where the project will be developed, whether it is inside or outside the school.

During this initial stage, faculty have an opportunity to integrate service-learning lessons with curricula involving social, economic, and educational issues that impact the school or surrounding community, diversity, and parental involvement. In addition, faculty can help preservice teachers develop a sense of how they will fit into the community of the school and gather important information that will help them form their own understanding and style of teaching. This understanding can be accomplished through a variety of assignments, some modeled after classroom observations or interviews and some that take teacher candidates outside the school and require them to examine and assess the neighborhood, and then discuss what they have learned and how that learning might impact their teaching. This stage of project development helps students grasp the value of building knowledge of the community as well as modeling strategies that they can adapt for use with P-12 students in their future classrooms.

We walked around the neighborhood this afternoon and at first I was really apprehensive and thought that the houses were really different from where I grew up. After a while, though, I began to see things that reminded me of my own home, like holiday decorations and children playing in driveways. When I first was in the classroom this morning, I looked around and thought I would have difficulty working with students that were so different from me. . . . But now I can see that we probably have a lot of things in common. I just need to look for them. [A second-year student]

After the candidates understand the importance of the assessment process, they can be presented with ideas for involving students in that process. Although in many cases the project will be primarily determined by the teacher and guided by curriculum needs, P-12 students should and can be involved in this very important first step. Through participation and decision making, students can become more committed to the project and will develop a sense of ownership and motivation that might not occur if they are left out at the beginning and simply told what the project will be. Often teachers might need to structure an assessment process that leads students through a brainstorming session or reflection that culminates in some decisions about the direction the project will take. Additionally, as teacher candidates become more comfortable with the process, they will become more flexible and confident with supporting projects that students themselves suggest.

Some ideas for involving P-12 students in assessing assets and needs include brainstorming sessions, using disposable cameras to take pictures of things that students feel are school or neighborhood problems, conducting surveys, or using current events to stimulate discussion of community issues. Each of these activities can be connected to existing education courses and P-12 outcomes and carried out by teacher candidates during field experiences.

Project Development. Once an assessment has been completed, faculty should focus teacher candidates on issues involved in deciding on the service-learning project they would like to undertake with students. Faculty should share examples that illustrate how some teachers start with their academic priorities and seek service connections, while others start with service opportunities and seek connections to the academic content. These two approaches may lead to similar projects and equally valid results, but they begin at different focus points. This difference can be important. Teachers with a strong, traditional academic focus will seldom consider service-learning unless they see a clear bridge from their academic priorities leading to service. Although it is most effective to have P-12 students involved in decision making, it is often easier for preservice teachers to make this decision themselves and then work toward more student involvement when they have their own classroom. The following vignette provides an example of how even in a primary grade, students might be involved in the initial assessment of the community and in deci-

sions about the project. In this case, the teacher candidate wanted to have the students work on a project that would serve the school, connect to classroom literacy goals, and be worked on only during her two hours a week in the classroom.

Beth, in developing her first service-learning project as part of her Methods of Teaching Reading course, had taken her second-grade students on a walk around the school and then brought them back to the classroom and asked them to share the things about the school that they liked. A list was made of "Good Things About Our School." One of the things mentioned by students was that the school was clean. She then asked students to consider how the school was kept clean and directed the discussion toward the janitors and other school personnel. As students shared their knowledge of who worked in the school, Beth made a list of school workers on the board, connecting the activity to both vocabulary development and social studies curricular goals, and moved the discussion in the direction of how to do something nice in return for those people who help us in the school. They decided to develop a book of poems about school workers for the library and present each worker with an autographed poem about their own job.

Once a project focus is decided upon, the following questions can help teacher candidates begin to develop a project plan:

- What academic knowledge and skill(s) could be included in the service-learning project?
- What values will the project emphasize?
- How much time will the project take?
- What scheduling, cooperative teaching, and/or student grouping activities might need to be considered?
- Will the project cost money, and if so, where will it come from?
- How can we obtain permission from the principal and the administration and involve them in the project?
- How can we obtain parents' support and involve them in the project?
- How can we involve community members and agencies in the project from the beginning in a way that respects them as equal partners in our work?

Project Implementation. At this stage, it is productive for faculty to review the seven elements of high quality service-learning and ask teacher candidates to use the elements to assess their project. At California State University-Chico, students participate in an exercise called Removing the Constraints in which they try to design their service-learning project as if they were developing it in a perfect world with no constraints at all. When the first part of the exercise is completed and they have thought through what they would like to do, they begin to consider issues that will shape their project to best fit school and classroom requirements. Certain issues need to be considered at this stage of project development:

- Curricular integration—establishing curriculum areas and specific learning outcomes that can be met through the project and determining students' preexisting knowledge and skills;
- Time—examining class and school schedules and length and hours of teacher candidate's fieldwork experience, and developing a project time line;
- Project logistics—considering transportation needs, administrative or cooperating teacher's approval, parental notification, and funding.

Appendix B includes assignment sheets for helping teacher candidates address, during planning, assessment of the community and curriculum integration.

Reflection. Reflection is a critical element of service-learning experiences. Preservice teachers need to plan for opportunities for students to reflect throughout project development and implementation to maximize critical-thinking and decision-making skills. Meaningful reflection includes recapturing an experience to learn from it and develop new understandings. In planning for student reflection, candidates need to consider the age and developmental stage of the students in the project and to design varying reflection activities to address the needs of diverse learners. Varying activities helps to address the learning needs of all students in the classroom, stimulate thoughts and feelings, and maximize the effectiveness of the reflection. For example, Beth might have used either of the following activities to stimulate reflection and enrich the experience of her second grade students.

- Magic Box—A square shape, the "Magic Box," is taped on the rug or floor in the room. Students take turns sitting in the box and sharing

their poems. Then they tell how they think the person about whom the poem is written will feel about it. Other students in the class can provide feedback. This activity relates to verbal skills, feelings, and cooperatively working together, all of which are appropriate second-grade curricular outcomes.

- **Picture Album**—Each child has a picture taken of him/her self presenting one school worker with a poem. Pictures are put into an album, and students take the album home to share the project and their poem with parents. The album could also be given to the kindergarten to help new students become familiar with the school and school helpers (Callahan & Ryan, 1999).

In addition to maximizing the learning for all students in the classroom, varying reflection activities during a service-learning project can serve to keep students interested in the project and provide a creative method of reporting on the project's progress.

Evaluation. Evaluation is a critical component of project development and implementation. Faculty need to stress to students that although service-learning can be seen as a valuable teaching strategy, it may not be appreciated or understood by some administrators and parents. Evaluation can provide valuable data to promote acceptance of service-learning in the educational community and will provide confirmation that curricular outcomes are being considered in project planning and implementation.

Teacher education candidates preparing a project evaluation plan should be directed to review project goals for all project participants, including students, community members, and teachers. Student outcomes might include skills in academic, behavioral, and social domains, and a meaningful evaluation plan should address each outcome and skill identified. Community members can be surveyed to evaluate the impact of the project on the community. In addition, teacher candidates should engage in reflective self-evaluation activities to determine how the project helped them to meet goals of the education course and individual learning objectives.

In Beth's second-grade service-learning project, one class assignment required that Beth reflect on each day's work in the classroom in light of project outcomes and her own learning. She not only related what happened each day but also provided thoughts about students' behavior, motivation, and learning in light of her planning and implementation of

the project. Each week she reviewed course objectives and reflected on how her work that week had helped her to meet one of those objectives. Finally, she considered and recorded one thing she might do more effectively the next time she worked with the students.

An example of one format for evaluating student learning through service-learning projects is also provided in Appendix B. Using this or a similar model, teacher candidates can create evaluation tools that identify the specific academic skills or content standards to be addressed during the service project activity and evaluate additional social and behavioral skills. In addition, Appendix B includes a self-evaluation questionnaire relating to academic and affective outcomes for secondary students.

Celebration and Recognition. We suggest that service-learning projects culminate by giving public recognition for students' service and/or by holding a celebration to provide participants with an opportunity to share their accomplishments and enjoy positive feedback about project outcomes. Whether the project involves elementary, middle, or secondary students, teacher candidates should include both the students doing service and the community being served in some kind of gathering to provide an environment for recognizing, sharing, and celebrating.

In many cases, the celebration is part of project implementation, such as when a middle school literature class presents holiday poems and stories to elderly citizens in a senior center. After the presentation, refreshments and opportunities for socialization might be provided. Or at the end of the service-learning project, a celebration could be held by the students providing service, as in the case of a third grade that raised money for adventure books for the school library and then planned a classroom party to celebrate their accomplishment.

STRUCTURED REFLECTIVE AND SELF-ASSESSMENT ACTIVITIES

Reflective thinking is a necessary quality of good teaching and an underpinning of service-learning pedagogy, and self-reflective abilities need to be nurtured and developed throughout the teacher education program. The relationship of reflective activity to understanding service-learning as a teaching method has been well documented (Englund & Spence, 1999; Eyler, Giles, & Schmiede, 1996; Silcox, 1995). Service-learning activities, even when they are exceptionally well designed and completed, do not impact students' thinking unless reflection is an embedded component of

the experience. Teacher education faculty should include reflection exercises throughout the process of teaching about service-learning as well as when preservice teachers are planning projects and after they have implemented those projects. In this way, preservice teachers can remain open to new strategies, carefully reconsider results of their practice, and deepen their understanding about the impact that service-learning has on their students, the community, and themselves.

Assignments designed to facilitate and reveal reflective thinking should be provided when introducing service-learning as a pedagogy. The following two exercises are examples of activities that have been found to encourage teacher candidates to reflect.

- Exercise 1—Ask candidates to write responses to the following: (a) describe the qualities of your favorite teacher (at any time during your school experience); and (b) describe the one most positive school learning experience you can remember and why this experience had such an impact on you. Candidates share their reflections with a partner, then with the larger group.
- Exercise 2—Introduce the teacher candidates to the seven elements of high quality service-learning (see Appendix B). During this introduction, relate the attributes of candidates' shared experiences from exercise one to the seven elements.

One response to Exercise 1 demonstrates how self-reflection can lead to teacher candidates' critically examining their own feelings about teaching and help them to develop a sense of the kind of teacher they want to become.

The most positive learning experience I remember is a fourth-grade teacher who transformed the classroom into an 1850s California gold mining camp equipped with gold pans and sluice box. The students were provided with several group projects [for] the study of the California gold rush. The teacher brought history to real life and provided the students with the opportunity to make decisions about their own learning experiences. [A second-year teacher education candidate]

This example led to a discussion about the power of students' voices and characteristics of meaningful learning experiences, both of which are important elements of high quality service-learning. In fact, when faculty

use this type of self-reflection question, they find that most of the seven elements of high quality service-learning appear in the memorable positive learning experiences identified by preservice teachers and can be used as a framework to introduce service-learning.

In addition, reflective self-assessment questions should be posed to preservice teachers during and after project implementation and should include multiple forms of reflection (journals, quick writes, partner sharing, whole-group discussion, project ratings, and responding to questionnaires). Some examples of effective questions designed to stimulate reflection are also found in Appendix B.

Another method for stimulating reflective thought during the service-learning project is assigning a reflection paper based on Kolb's (1984) basic phases of the learning process: experience, observation, analysis, new understanding, and application. Students may be asked to keep a traditional daily journal in which they record the events of the service-learning project and then respond to questions addressing the phases in a final reflection paper. This type of assignment guides students through a self-assessment process that can assist in the development of insightful understanding about a variety of issues, including those having to do with community and collaboration. The following comments from a fifth-year student demonstrate awareness that can be stimulated by this kind of activity.

An effective way to meet opposition is to involve administrators and parents in the process every step of the way. Communication is extremely important, and taking the extra time to correspond with members ensures a better learning experience for every student.

Appendix B also includes a format for evaluating students' journals when used with service-learning projects.

CONCLUDING REFLECTIONS

Deciding to initiate or expand the teaching of service-learning pedagogy is a little like deciding to use a powerful new medicine that the doctor warns will cause short-term discomfort and anxiety. The eventual rewards dwarf the stresses, but the hurdles are real and require attention. We have emphasized that successful teaching of service-learning pedagogy begins by build-

ing it into existing program goals. We have advised that professors create structures to help teacher candidates learn how to design, implement, and assess service-learning. We have called for instruction that is systematic and detailed so that teacher candidates acquire the practical tools and confidence needed for success. Finally, we have emphasized and illustrated the crucial importance of reflection for effective service-learning. Teacher candidates can best learn how to use service-learning when they implement actual projects in a P-12 classrooms where they are actively supported by an experienced, supervising teacher. When this approach is not possible, simulations can, however, offer a useful alternative.

Professors have had success with two specific activities: project design and case study analysis. With respect to project design, after teaching the key elements of high quality service-learning and the different steps of managing a service-learning project, students may be asked to design a service-learning project that includes all the required implementation details. These projects can then be assessed by the class using the criteria developed earlier. This assessment could be enhanced by inviting experienced service-learning teachers to question students and help judge final quality.

Case study analysis is a simulation activity involving students analyzing a case study of a service-learning project. Students learn much by looking at strengths and weaknesses of the work of others. Such problem-centered work that does not directly connect to real schools and real communities may dilute the drama of life, but it can nurture important learning.

Service-learning is a powerful teaching strategy that holds great promise for helping students learn well in all academic areas. Understanding the power of this teaching strategy and being able to use it effectively, however, are not the same thing. We need to work together to make certain that we prepare the next generation of teachers to effectively use this incredible resource.

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CHAPTER 29

CONTINUOUS IMPROVEMENT: ASSESSING STUDENTS' LEARNING THROUGH SERVICE

■ RICH CAIRN, MARK LANGSETH, AND JULIE PLAUT

When Kirk Schneidawind, a junior high teacher in St. Peter, Minnesota, had his American history students re-create historical European and Dakota Indian gardens for the county historical society, he found that students generated far too much useful material for him to assess. Students researched and wrote reports on gardening techniques. They sketched pre- and postproject maps to show what they knew about typical gardens from each culture. They crafted and then demonstrated the use of authentic Native bone tools. They scripted and led garden tours. They wrote in journals. And, of course, they created actual gardens and grew food in them, using rare genetic stock originally from Native fields and given to the class by Minnesota State University researchers. Schneidawind's primary objective for the course was to help his students understand how their gardening-related experiences changed their stereotypes about settler and Native cultures. Ultimately, he had students collect just their plans, reports, maps, and journals in a portfolio. Then he and the students, both individually and in groups, compared students' stereotypes from the beginning to the end of the project.

Service-learning practitioners like Kirk Schneidawind are generally confident about the value of service-learning experiences in their programs. Yet capturing what is learned and communicating it to administrators, parents, the public, and even to the students themselves poses a challenge. Experience shows that the benefits of high quality assessment for students, communities, teachers, and schools are significant enough to justify taking on that challenge (Shumer, Neal, Richardson, & Sundre, 1999).

Service-learning is a growing national movement, both in P-12 education and in teacher education. The service-learning movement has come to

a critical point in its evolution. Having now built an initial critical mass of practitioners and advocates, we must turn our attention to ensuring highly effective practice; documenting clear results for students, communities, and institutions; and demonstrating relevance toward a number of broader educational priorities. If we do not take aggressive steps at the local, state, and national levels in each of these areas, the service-learning movement risks dying away as merely one more promising, but passing, educational innovation. If we do take these steps, however, the movement has great potential to reach its promise, not only to improve classroom teaching and learning but also to yield powerful community outcomes and to serve as a catalyst for school reform (Nathan & Kielsmeier, 1991; Kielsmeier, 2000).

CONTINUOUS IMPROVEMENT AND POSITIVE ACCOUNTABILITY

To ensure effective practice, document clear results, and demonstrate our relevance to broader educational agendas, those of us who practice service-learning must turn far greater attention to evaluation and assessment. (In this chapter, "evaluation" refers to activities aimed at ascertaining the overall effectiveness of a program or course, while "assessment" refers to activities aimed at ascertaining specific student and community outcomes.) Yet few teachers and faculty in the field have made it a priority. Why? Because evaluation and assessment are too often viewed as added tasks whose primary purpose is to defend innovative courses and programs against external meddlers (district offices, state departments of education, boards of teacher certification, accreditation organizations). Resentful of having to add more work to an already full plate, many educators resist a focus on evaluation and assessment.

Yet more constructive approaches to evaluation and assessment may hold the key to the ultimate success of both local service-learning efforts and the broader service-learning movement. Specifically, we propose that teachers and faculty who practice service-learning hasten to adopt an ethic of "continuous improvement" and "positive accountability."

The idea of continuous improvement suggests that practitioners of service-learning at all levels must consider and evaluate how they might improve their practice. From novice practitioners to seasoned veterans, we must all turn our attention toward improving every aspect of our pedagogy, including selecting community partners, preparing students for their community experiences, bridging service with learning, and assessing outcomes.

The concept of positive accountability reminds us that accountability can be constructive rather than punitive. It suggests that when we consider all of the constituents to whom we are accountable, we can better design our programs for maximum impact on our students, communities, institutions, and the field as a whole (Shumer et al., 1999). A sample of those to whom we are positively accountable includes:

- *Students.* With the shift in emphasis from “teaching” to “learning” in both P-12 schools and higher education comes an opportunity to engage students more fully, yielding far greater outcomes than conventional pedagogies.
- *Communities.* Rather than simply viewing community sites as laboratories for learning, we can involve community members as true partners in all aspects of service-learning, including the assessment of program outcomes.
- *Ourselves.* Perhaps the most important form of accountability is to ourselves and the goals we set for service-learning to achieve, whether they be related to greater understanding of the subject matter, enhanced sense of civic duty, increased skills, multicultural education, or impact on the community.
- *Peers in the field.* Accountability for best practices and clear results and to relevant standards relates directly to the sustainability of the service-learning movement.
- *Larger educational agendas.* Service-learning has tremendous potential to address multiple standards and certification requirements. Taking advantage of this rich possibility demands highly strategic evaluation and assessment.

If careful assessment is an essential component of a fully developed curriculum, then integrating highly effective assessment practices into service-learning courses in teacher education is critical for at least three pedagogical reasons:

- To *model* the importance and effective use of assessment for preservice teachers;
- To give preservice teachers *hands-on experience* with high-quality assessment of service-learning; and
- To allow teacher educators and preservice teachers an opportunity to

reflect critically together about how well the tools used to assess their own and/or their P-12 students' learning actually worked.

ATTENDING TO CONTEXT AND COLLABORATION

Closely related to adopting an attitude of continuous improvement and positive accountability is giving significant attention to context. Local and state-level standards, accreditation requirements, and disciplinary cultures must inform the development of curricula and assessment methods. Yet service-learning is also distinctive as a fundamentally collaborative way to teach and learn, involving people and organizations beyond the classroom. The highest-quality service-learning programs strive to develop strong partnerships among the various stakeholders rather than to use community organizations simply as placement sites for students. Just as partners will set goals together, they can and should share the task of assessing progress toward those goals.

Service-learning goals commonly focus on student learning, but any mutually beneficial partnership will also identify goals related to community or institutional outcomes. Community members have a special capacity to assess the latter outcomes; in addition, because they often directly supervise students' service activities, they may be well qualified to report on students' performance. Teachers or faculty will still carry primary responsibility for assigning letter grades, but the results of a collaborative assessment can be more meaningful, accurate, and thorough.

Students themselves benefit from participating in the assessment of their learning. Minnesota's Assessing Learning through Service initiative found that P-12 students tended to improve their understanding of what constitutes quality work, develop greater capacity to be self-directed learners, engage more fully with the service-learning project, and gain heightened self-understanding (Cairn & Cairn, 1999). For preservice teachers, assessing their own learning-or the learning of students with whom they work-and then reflecting on the ability of various assessment tools and techniques to capture their learning will help them prepare to assess their future students' learning. Through dialogue between students, teachers/faculty, and community stakeholders, the very process of assessment thus becomes educational.

Participation by community members and students in assessment strengthens partnerships and fosters a sense of collegiality. It also gives every-

one involved a better understanding of responsibilities and procedures, heightens the quality of service experiences, and helps ensure the relevance and workability of assessment tools, thus raising the level of student development and providing for the kind of public accountability crucial to any service-learning program (Shumer et al., 1999; Erickson & Anderson, 1997).

THE PROCESS OF ASSESSMENT

How does high quality collaborative assessment of service-learning happen? It begins with individuals' commitment to an ongoing cycle of preparation, implementation, and reflection. As discussed earlier, an ethic of continuous improvement and positive accountability requires teachers and teacher education faculty to assess the outcomes of their work-and to conduct that assessment in collaboration with others. Community members and students, particularly preservice teachers, can both contribute to and benefit from participating in the entire assessment process.

This section begins by briefly discussing each of the five steps in the assessment cycle:

- Identifying goals
- Collecting evidence of learning
- Organizing the evidence
- Assessing the quality of the evidence
- Reflecting on the assessment process and refining techniques.

Examples from elementary and secondary schools follow, giving teacher educators and preservice teachers an overview of effective practice. These examples may also be useful for those faculty seeking new ways to assess preservice teachers' service-learning or for preservice teachers assigned to develop assessment tools. Examples from several teacher education programs across the country then illuminate both the similarities and differences in the contexts and expectations for assessment. We do not present this material as a foolproof blueprint to be followed but instead hope that the general approach and specific models will inform your own development of assessment practices appropriate to your context.

IDENTIFYING GOALS

Setting objectives for any service-learning program ideally entails discussions with a variety of partners and potential stakeholders. The questions

that might come to a teacher's mind immediately probably focus on the specific objectives of the course and perhaps on the mission of the department or school. What are the learning goals for students, not only in terms of content but also cognitive skills such as application or synthesis? What other development goals, such as career preparation or religious identity, exist regarding students? Service-learning has important consequences for the communities and institutions involved as well. Determining the desired community impact might involve not only discussions with community members but also review of related materials, such as public surveys or community organizations' strategic plans. Finally, what goals do you have related to your institution? Asking this series of questions can help teams think through the assessment of service-learning in a particular context. Clarifying who needs to know the results of assessment, and why, will also lead to an assessment plan that is useful for all concerned.

Which of these goals prompt you to do service-learning?

For students/preservice teachers:

- Cognitive, e.g., increased understanding of course concepts, improved analytical skills
- Affective, e.g., higher sense of personal efficacy and self-esteem, increased openness to people different from yourself
- Behavioral, e.g., more active participation in the community, more regular attendance at school, more effective use of service-learning as a pedagogy

For the community:

- Short term, e.g., reaching more young students with tutoring services, collecting oral histories of older people in town
- Long term, e.g., decreasing economic stratification, developing more trust and communication between different ethnic groups

For the institution:

- Internal, e.g., finding innovative pedagogical strategies that engage students with different learning styles, reinvigorating teachers/faculty
- External, e.g., improving relations with the community, attracting new resources (grant funds, parent volunteers, etc.)

Identifying the various goals of any service-learning course can easily yield an overwhelming list. Fortunately, not all the desired outcomes must

be formally assessed. It is more important that goals be prioritized according to course objectives and context and that the selected outcomes be carefully assessed. Other outcomes can be left to informal observation, or, if appropriate, students themselves can conduct the assessment, with the resulting products doubling as evidence of their own learning.

COLLECTING EVIDENCE OF STUDENTS' LEARNING

Many tangible (and highly assessable) products arise as a natural outgrowth of the service involved in any service-learning course or program. Project proposals, action plans and timelines, correspondence between students and agencies—such evidence is readily available as long as the instructor clearly informs students and site supervisors about what types of evidence to keep and turn in. Articles, brochures, videos, instruction manuals, lessons, or presentations that students develop to educate future volunteers or the public about an issue related to their service project also demonstrate certain aspects of the students' learning.

Service-learning practitioners often use journals to foster reflection about service experiences. Such reflection tools have potential as evidence of students' learning, but depending on the goals for reflection and assessment, it may not be desirable or appropriate to use the same documents for both purposes. Using them allows students to consider and speak directly to what they have learned and sometimes captures those learning experiences that no one can plan or foresee. In some courses, however, essays, research papers, and case studies will be more consistent with learning goals than journals and other reflection tools. When directed appropriately, these common writing assignments may uncover not only academic skills but also the changes in students' civic attitudes, self-understanding, and so on that are more commonly measured through pre- and posttests or surveys.

Learning is also evident at the service site. Veteran teachers have found that occasional visits to schools or agencies while students are at work can yield a wealth of information about students' performance on site. Regular check-in phone calls with site supervisors provide additional feedback and strengthen the partnership overall. Site supervisors and the students themselves can also record their observations about students' performance and learning. Teachers may also deepen insights into students' perceptions by interviewing individuals or facilitating discussion groups,

offering students time to assess their own progress, to ask for counsel or additional training, and to exchange views with the program partners.

Clearly, service-learning offers a rich variety of ways to collect evidence of progress toward student learning. In light of the many possibilities, choosing those most relevant and significant to a program's or course's goals is a crucial step. Again, thorough assessment does not mean assessing every piece of students' work. To the contrary, it is important to choose those few tasks that truly require students to demonstrate what they know and can do in areas related to the most important program or course goals. At the same time, to ensure fair and accurate evaluation, thorough evaluation usually includes at least two or three different types of evidence, which ensures, for instance, that students with poor writing skills will also benefit from others' observations and other evidence of their learning.

ORGANIZING THE EVIDENCE USING PORTFOLIOS

It may not be apparent that the various types of evidence above need to be organized. Teachers often grade individual assignments as they come in, then average them all into a final grade or score. Yet having students organize their work into a portfolio adds a deeper opportunity for reflection and analysis.

As befits their origins in the creative arts, portfolios are thought of by most people as a showcase of one's best work. Certainly, portfolios have value when used this way, especially if a school or college has a consistent approach to help students know what to put in their portfolios and how to organize and present them. Some schools now allow students to integrate their best work from numerous classes into school career portfolios, which may even be referenced in student transcripts.

But portfolios ought to be more than merely a loose collection of materials. For service-learning courses or programs, portfolios can provide an effective means to have students organize and analyze their own work. Students can collect items that document the progress of their thinking and accomplishment over a period of months. They then review and analyze the collection to find out what led to setbacks or successes, to see how their skills have improved, or to better understand their civic, intellectual, or emotional development. Whether the outcome of this review is an essay reporting their conclusions or a set of introductions to each piece in the portfolio, this exercise requires students to explain their own work

within a larger context. As with any assignment, clear criteria and meaningful outcomes make portfolios effective tools to stimulate critical thinking and demonstrate learning. Table 1 lists methods for collecting and analyzing student learning at various points during the project.

TABLE 1. METHODS FOR COLLECTING AND ANALYZING EVIDENCE OF LEARNING

Start of Project

COLLECTION

Tasks that reflect the student's ability to determine/establish goals, adequately understand expectations, and plan project implementation might include:

- Project proposals or grant applications
- Visioning essays
- Needs/assets assessments
- Action plans or timelines
- Student-generated checklists or rubrics
- Student-generated letters of introduction to site staff, detailing goals and objectives
- Student interview with site supervisors to discuss expectations of performance

ANALYSIS

Pretests establish a baseline of students' attitudes toward service, community, careers, and school; academic knowledge; and/or relationships with other stakeholders.

Diagnose students' levels of interest, knowledge, skills, or awareness of topics related to service projects.

Establish expectations with clear criteria and/or levels of quality using portfolios (set up system to collect materials), checklists, and rubrics.

Ongoing Throughout Project

COLLECTION

- Student-generated artwork, journals, correspondence, project updates, lesson plans, case studies or research papers
- Regular reflection seminar to discuss/assess activities, solve problems, or examine materials
- Photographs that indicate relationship between student and service recipients or show objects created as part of service
- Attendance and participation records or logs

ANALYSIS

Students measure the quality of their work against quality criteria, then revise and improve their products, using checklists and rubrics. Students place materials in their portfolios.

Midway Through Project

COLLECTION

- Student critique form completed by self, peers, teachers, site supervisor, service recipients
- Surveys, interviews
- Midterm project updates written or presented to teacher, classmates, or community

ANALYSIS

Same as above

Conclusion of Project

COLLECTION

- Student products listed above
- Student-generated assessment of portfolio materials
- Student critique form completed by self, peers, teacher, site supervisor, service recipients
- Surveys, exit interviews
- Final project reports written or presented to teachers, classmates, or the community
- Posttests document changes since pretest.

ANALYSIS

Comprehensive evaluation of all evidence of learning according to quality criteria, using checklists and rubrics

Examination and analysis of portfolio documents for evidence of student's growth over service period

Comparison of pre- and posttests to assess students' growth.

Adapted from Neal Inventory of Teacher Assessment Practices in Shumer et al. (1999).

ASSESSING THE QUALITY OF THE EVIDENCE

The numerous and complex goals common to service-learning demand creativity in assessment. During the late 1990s, service-learning practitioners turned for help to educators with experience in performance-based assessment, also known as alternative assessment. Two powerful tools, checklists and rubrics, clearly communicate expectations for performance. These same tools give teachers, site supervisors, and students a structured means to rate students' achievement according to clear, agreed-upon criteria and levels of quality. When shared from the beginning, such tools also clarify expectations for students and help them strive for excellence. When preservice teachers get a chance to create and work with

these powerful and adaptable tools, they greatly expand the range of options available to them as professionals.

Checklists and rubrics may be developed collaboratively, following the pattern described in this chapter. A rich and growing literature offers practical help in the development of alternative assessments. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and other organizations and publishers offer an array of relevant publications. Aschbacher, Herman, and Winters (1992) and Wiggins (1996), for example, offer excellent overviews for assessment design. Other publications address issues of interest to those teacher educators focused on improving their assessment of undergraduate or graduate students' learning (Banta, Lund, Black, & Oblander, 1995; Palomba & Banta, 1999).

The literature of alternative assessment urges educators to use authentic, real-world tasks whenever possible. In this context, "authentic" indicates tasks that come as close as possible to the work done by adult professionals. In many cases, service-learning programs can apply existing professional standards, for example, job-related productivity or ethical guidelines, or environmental monitoring protocols from government agencies. More often, teachers must work with school and community stakeholders to establish specific performance criteria for each service-learning project or program.

Checklists. A checklist is a set of criteria that describe a quality performance or product (see, for example, Table 2). Teachers, students, and site supervisors typically like checklists because they spell out exactly what the student must do. Indeed, once students have experience with checklists and rubrics, they often begin to ask for them. Yet assessment checklists must be more than mere "to-do" lists. An effective checklist describes characteristics of quality for a task or performance. In addition, checklists must not be too prescriptive. Students need room to develop their own solutions to problems, and checklists ideally assess processes of development as well as final products. This benefit is critical for service-learning projects when the final result of a student's effort may be far in the future or even out of the student's control entirely. Minnesota teachers have found that assigning too many checklists with too many detailed items can spawn a time-consuming burden. Thus, it is essential to prioritize criteria for assessment that are truly relevant and important.

TABLE 2. CHECKLISTS FOR SERVING THE COMMUNITY

People & Cultures Standard 8.1: Community Interaction

E = Excellent

S = Satisfactory

N = Needs Improvement

CHECKLIST FOR PRIORITIZED LIST OF COMMUNITY AGENCIES

Student

Teacher

___ The list represents a thoughtful prioritization.

___ The questions the student considered were relevant.

___ The priorities selected represent feasible projects.

___ Decisions are supported with evidence.

CHECKLIST FOR SERVICE-LEARNING ACTION PLAN

Student

Teacher

___ The reason for choosing the agency is clearly stated.

___ The population to be served is clearly defined.

___ Steps to accomplish the goal are realistic and attainable.

___ Conclusions are justified with relevant data and information.

___ The time line is realistic.

Craig Sheets, John Marshall High School community interaction instructor.

Rubrics. A rubric gives criteria for scoring or rating students' performance. Typically, rubrics consist of a fixed measurement scale, often arranged on a grid, with a description of the qualities of the products or performances being measured for each level. Rubrics may be broad (see, for example, Table 3) or project specific.

Clearly written criteria and levels of quality help teachers to make consistent, fair, and accurate judgments about students' performance. Students, teachers, and agency supervisors all know exactly what is expected of students in terms of quality performance. Students gain a greater ability to revise and improve their work based on feedback from peers, site supervisors, and instructors. Rubrics give all stakeholders concrete language to talk about what is meant by quality work.

Both students and teachers gain skill with rubrics through practice. The rubrics themselves benefit from field-testing and from ongoing critique

and revision. Sharing and comparing rubrics with colleagues is essential. Further, rubrics become more fair and reliable when they are based on comparisons between samples of students' actual work representing each level of quality. When students participate in developing rubrics, they have the opportunity to examine and discuss what each task or assignment requires in terms of quality. Such an understanding leads students to assume greater overall responsibility for learning.

TABLE 3. TASK MANAGEMENT SKILLS RUBRIC
PERSEVERANCE

	4 = EXEMPLARY WORK	3 = PROFICIENT WORK	2 = EMERGING WORK	1 = NOVICE WORK
Concentration/ Staying on Task	Concentrates for extended periods of time on assigned tasks, even during distractions, and returns to task immediately.	Applies self-discipline in continuing to work toward assigned goals.	Concentrates for short period of time on assigned tasks.	Has trouble focusing on assigned tasks, and frequently distracts others.
Supervision	Continually works without supervision.	Able to perform tasks with little or no supervision.	Needs structure and occasional supervision.	Requires constant supervision/structure to complete assigned tasks.
Ability to Handle Challenges (Obstacles)	Anticipates/plans for obstacles.	Attempts to overcome obstacles.	Selective in overcoming obstacles.	Unaware/refuses to acknowledge obstacles.

In addition to the criteria above, the student and the site supervisor rank how important this skill is to the job/standard: 4 = vital, 3 = necessary/required, 2 = occasionally needed, 1 = rarely needed.

REFLECTING ON THE ASSESSMENT PROCESS AND REFINING TECHNIQUES

The need for continuous improvement applies as much or more to assessment as it does to any other aspect of education. Because assessment touches on all aspects of teaching and learning, quick fixes rarely work well. Rather, effective implementation of assessment requires both ongoing and scheduled review of progress toward agreed-upon goals. Are all stakeholders involved in assessment to the extent that they should be? Do assessments generate the desired information about students' achievement? If not, how could they be improved? Are assessments fair? Do they impose an undue burden on anyone? Are training or other additional resources required? It is especially important for preservice teachers to gain experience addressing such questions so that they learn to evaluate the impact on learners of particular changes in instruction.

EXAMPLES OF ASSESSMENT IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The following examples come from the Assessing Learning Through Service initiative of the Minnesota Department of Children, Families & Learning, which was funded by the Corporation for National Service from 1996-2000. More than 20 school districts received grants to develop and pilot performance-based methods of assessing student learning in service settings. Each teacher approached assessment differently, grounding designs in the context of particular student, school, and community needs. Examples from these schools draw on both teachers' and program evaluators' insights (Cairn & Cairn, 1999, 2000; Shumer et al., 1999).

Michael Hawkins has each of his 100 English students choose a service project. As an English teacher, he wants to provide students with rich source material for their writing. He also wants students to have experience developing portfolios. In addition, Benilde-St. Margaret, the private Catholic school in suburban Minneapolis where Hawkins teaches, has established schoolwide goals of fostering personal, social, interpersonal, and values development. The school specifically encourages teachers to integrate service-learning projects in their courses as a means to achieve these goals. Hawkins asks students to include in their portfolios a detailed project proposal, a project timeline, including plan period, journal entries, a "personal reaction" essay, a thank you note to the agency, and (optional) memorabilia or artwork. At the close of the course, students

examine their portfolios and reflect in writing about how their experiences differed from expectations and plans. Each component of the portfolio receives points based on content, writing style, and use.

Marcia Applen, social studies instructor at St. Peter High School, has taught a community service course and youth internship for 10 years. The purpose of the program is to enable students to apply academic skills in real-world settings. Minnesota graduation standards prompted Applen to create a set of four rubrics for state task management skills. Grouped in four categories—teamwork, resource management, perseverance, and time management—the task management skills are based on state and national research, including research by the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (1991) (see Table 3). Both the student and the site supervisor complete the rubric and go over it together. To ensure that all parties have the same priorities for student performance, Applen asks both students and site supervisors to rate the importance of each item. Applen developed this and other tools with help from the education faculty and students from Gustavus Adolphus College.

A Minnesota partnership between environmental agencies and local schools engages students in grades 3-12 in water quality monitoring and pollution prevention projects. Agencies participate because they see mobilizing students to educate the public as an essential strategy to reduce household pollution sources. Schools have a variety of academic and social goals for the program. Local watershed districts need students to report field observations about water quality practices. A project-specific Water Quality Reconnaissance Rubric helps ensure the quality of these reports. The rubric includes several items: Observations are detailed and consistent. Ranking of priorities is well reasoned and well supported. Report is well organized. Presentation is clear and effective. Record of observations is accurate. Each item goes on to describes four levels of quality. For example, the item related to accuracy breaks down as follows:

1. Expert—describes all observations precisely and with no errors
2. Proficient—describes observations with a high degree of precision and with no errors
3. Emerging—describes observations with few or no errors; some descriptions may be vague
4. Novice—descriptions contain obvious errors or are incomprehensibly vague.

EXAMPLES OF ASSESSMENT IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Many of the assessment methods used in service-learning courses at primary and secondary schools can also be used to assess the performance of preservice teachers in service-learning courses. Those teacher educators interested in preparing preservice teachers to assess the learning of their P-12 students will find both the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) standards for novice teachers and the Beginning Teacher Service-Learning Competencies useful as context for the development of service-learning assessment plans. A national sample of teachers and teacher educators has compared these two standards and found significant areas of overlap regarding the knowledge and skills needed to design and implement high quality service-learning (Ryan & Callahan, 1999). Engaging preservice teachers in the entire cycle of assessment and reflection will make them familiar with the various tools that can be used to collect and evaluate evidence of learning, give them experience developing, using, and analyzing such tools, and deepen their understanding of the overall process and its rationale. The following examples offer teacher educators a variety of strategies and philosophies regarding the assessment of preservice teachers' own learning and the preparation of preservice teachers to assess their students' learning.

Arc Hennepin County and Augsburg College in Minneapolis have developed a special education course in which preservice teachers work with families who have a child with mental retardation or related developmental disabilities. Over the course of a semester, teacher education students observe the child in the classroom, meet several times with the family, and use the MAPS (McGill Action Planning System) to develop a graphic plan of the family's vision for the child. Students contribute to the development of the child's individualized education plan and, when possible, attend the child's educational team planning meetings. They also document and reflect on their experiences in a project that includes a case study. Other evidence of student learning and performance is gathered through assessment forms completed by the students and their partner families and through interviews conducted by Arc program staff. Because the intended student outcomes focus on knowledge about people with disabilities and laws regarding special education rather than on using service-learning in a special education context, the final paper assignment

requires students to integrate their experiences and research in a statement of their special education philosophy. Yet the collaborative assessment process strengthens the partnership among all parties involved in the project, and it models for the preservice teachers one way high quality assessment happens in service-learning courses.

At the University of Iowa, students in an elementary social studies course reflect on their service-learning projects by creating at least three portfolio pages that document what they did and what they learned from the experience. A Community Service-Learning (CSL) Handbook introduces students to the rationale for including a CSL project in the course, the expected educational benefits, and the various sites with which they can serve. It also poses some reflection questions that might be answered in the portfolio pages, for instance, How might what you learned about social issues or community agencies impact your future teaching of elementary social studies? and How can you apply what you learned about community service-learning to your future teaching? One of the instructors, Rahima Wade, has conducted research on the effectiveness of portfolios in teacher education and found that most students-particularly those who fully understood the tool's nature and purpose-benefited from creating a portfolio and expressed appreciation for the reflective thinking that it entailed (Wade & Yarbrough, 1996). In the process of reflectively assessing their own learning from both service and classroom activities, preservice teachers gain ideas and insights that will shape their future assessment of P-12 students.

In the past, elementary social studies students engaged in more intensive self-assessment. The syllabus highlighted the instructors' commitment to creating a democratic classroom, which entailed some choices by students about discussion and assignment topics, as well as students' participation in assessment of their own performance. Students collected their work at the middle and end of the term, turning it in with a brief essay answering several questions about their learning so far, their remaining development goals, and the grade they would give themselves at that point. A rubric included in the syllabus provided them with guidance on the grading criteria. If a student suggested a grade that differed markedly from the one judged appropriate by the instructors, they met to discuss the reasons for their opinions; in cases when these negotiations did not end in consensus, the instructors simply assigned the grade they consid-

ered appropriate (Lyday, Swick, & Winecoff, 1999). This approach was extremely time-consuming, however, for an instructor with approximately 80 students per semester. Students also consistently wanted to give themselves higher grades than Wade believed they deserved. As a result, the portfolio pages now serve as the primary means for students to assess their own learning.

At Seattle University, students in Service Leadership, a required course for the Masters in Teaching program, must complete a service-learning action plan describing a service-learning project, the intended outcomes, the steps in planning, the means for accomplishing objectives, a timeline, and the methods of assessment. The instructor, Jeffrey Anderson, provides not only an outline of action plan contents but also the specific objectives, rationale, and criteria for evaluation of the assignment. He also cites the specific sections of the Washington Administrative Code (the state standards for teacher education) that the project fulfills. Some of the assessment criteria used with the action plan are more or less generic to any academic writing assignment—clarity of expression; grammar, punctuation, and spelling—while others are more particular to the assignment—extent to which the plan reflects the principles of effective service-learning; plan sufficiently detailed to allow actual implementation. Anderson includes no rubric or point distribution because he believes that too much detail fosters a mind-set incompatible with the development of students' initiative, leadership, and tolerance for ambiguity. All students evaluate their own and a peer's plan before the instructor grades them. Because assessment of their students' learning is one of the subjects that must be addressed in the plan, this process forces reflection on the topic.

The assessment of students' work in Service Leadership is a clear example of assessment focusing on the synthesis and application of knowledge about service-learning. Students are encouraged but not required to implement their plans as part of their field practicum or student teaching. Approximately half the students do implement their action plans. Students and supervising teachers together complete a written assessment form. Students also present information at the annual Service Leadership Conference, during which they describe the project, reflect on their own and their P-12 students' learning, and analyze how they followed the principles of effective practice. Assessing students' ability to function well without knowing exactly what to do and how to do it—an implicit goal

of Anderson's teaching style—is an example of a desired outcome that is not formally measured.

CONCLUSION

Ongoing collaborative assessment, pursued in the spirit of continuous improvement and positive accountability, can provide crucial strength to the field of service-learning, which stands at a crucial point in its history. In addition, at the local level, high quality assessment benefits everyone involved in service-learning courses and programs. By improving not only teaching and learning but also community partnerships and service, it yields positive outcomes for students, communities, and institutions. By helping preservice teachers develop their professional skills, it also offers more long-term impact.

The assessment cycle as outlined above—identifying goals, collecting evidence of learning, organizing the evidence, assessing the quality of the evidence, and reflecting on the assessment process and refining techniques—rests on the assumption that improvement and adaptation will always be necessary. Even veteran teachers find that new methods usually work differently in practice from how they were intended. Instructors who remain open to unexpected consequences may also discover that a course's impact on students includes outcomes they had not anticipated. Every service-learning program must take into account its specific goals and contexts, which may change with time. Both current and preservice teachers gain invaluable experience and insights as they analyze existing assessment practices, review the evidence of learning from those practices, identify any key outcomes that assessments have failed to capture, and then refine their assessment techniques.

This chapter offers examples of effective practice for assessment of service-learning, which reveal the extent to which individual teachers and faculty choose different tools for collecting, organizing, and analyzing student learning and performance. Despite their different contexts, goals, and philosophies, the models reflect a shared commitment to collaborative assessment. Many of the assessment methods useful to service-learning can be found in other academic settings. Yet the collaborative nature of service-learning creates special opportunities and responsibilities. For site supervisors and students, participation in assessment fosters deeper engagement and ownership, improves understanding of high quality

work, and deepens the impact of service on the community. For teachers and faculty, performance-oriented assessment of service-learning provides a means to know and account for student learning that occurs beyond the classroom walls.

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PART FIVE

SERVICE-LEARNING AND TEACHER EDUCATION: AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

■ ROBERT SHUMER AND ANN TREACY

The fields of service-learning and teacher education have become entwined in the last decade or two. Before the 1990s, much of teacher preparation for service-learning was offered by nonprofit organizations, often through short-term workshops and training. The last 5 to 10 years have shown a marked increase in involvement of formal teacher training institutions, especially in colleges and universities through their schools or colleges of education. A recent publication by the American Association for Higher Education (AAHE), cosponsored by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), revealed that service-learning was a viable subject in many teacher training institutions (Erickson & Anderson, 1997). This trend has created a need to know what literature is available that connects service-learning and teacher education.

The purpose of this annotated bibliography is to provide a list of resources that represent current work in the field of service-learning and teacher education. Our hope is to build on past bibliographies by Cascade Educational Consultants (1997) and Anderson (1998), not to replicate their efforts. Therefore, the emphasis is on more recent work.

Our search began with library catalogs and databases, including the National Service-Learning Clearinghouse collection, ERIC, Expanded Academic ASAP, Digital Dissertations, and the World Wide Web. We performed searches using the following keywords in multiple combinations: teacher education, preservice teachers, service-learning, community-based learning, and community service. Next, references cited in the articles found were perused for further bibliographic materials. These references provided an impressive list of sources.

With the aim of a manageable reading and resource list rather than an exhaustive compilation, the originally inclusive collection has been

reduced. Materials that are difficult to obtain, materials that received sufficient attention in previous bibliographies, and materials that were redundant (such as numerous descriptions of the same study) were removed. The result is the following collection, which reflects the broad interests and needs of the service-learning and teacher education fields.

The bibliography is organized in several sections. "Anthologies" contains collected works. "Periodicals" includes journals that focus on teacher education, service-learning, or both. "Bibliographies" gives resource lists that target service-learning and teacher education. "Guides" contains specific information about implementing service-learning programs. "Media" includes nonprint resources. "Research/program reports" includes studies and general articles that discuss the impact or status of teacher education and service-learning. (Items that are available through ERIC's centralized database of educational materials include the ERIC number.) Finally, "Organizations" identifies groups that focus on teacher education, service-learning, or both.

ANTHOLOGIES

Council of Chief State School Officers. (1995). *Integrating service learning into teacher education: Why and how?* Washington, DC: Author.

Six essays describe teacher education programs that have integrated service-learning into the curriculum. Common obstacles include ensuring that preservice teachers learn how and why to integrate service-learning; preparing teachers and administrators to approach service-learning as a reform, not as an added activity; including reflection as a necessary component; and recruiting and sustaining community partnerships. The reward for service-learning integration is a more well-rounded graduate who is better aware of holistic needs of the students, who has greater understanding of multicultural issues, who is versed and practiced in the art of reflection, and who feels more confident integrating service-learning projects in his or her own classroom.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education. (Ed.). (1998). *Contextual teaching and learning: Preparing teachers to enhance student success in and beyond school*. Columbus, OH: Center on Education and Training for Employment. (ED 427 263)

This collection of essays on contextual teaching as an approach to prepare future teachers includes Rahima Wade's article, *Community service learning: Collaborating with the*

community and a context of problems. Wade promotes service-learning in teacher education by highlighting the benefits seen in P-12 service-learning programs. Using a fictional case study of one teacher education student's experience with three different service-learning projects, Wade paints a picture of what is required to successfully integrate service-learning in a teacher education course. Practical recommendations for successful implementation are included. Wade's article contains 52 references.

Erickson, J. A., & Anderson, J. B. (Eds.). (1997). *Learning with the community: Concepts and models for service-learning in teacher education.* Washington, DC: American Association for Higher Education. (ED 416 179)

This collection includes articles from practitioners and experts in the fields of service-learning and teacher education. Articles are organized in three areas: research-based essays, practical discussions, and examples of teacher education programs currently integrating service-learning. The book includes a bibliography of 62 references and a list of related resources.

Kraft, R., & Swadener, M. (Eds.). (1994). *Building community: Service learning in the academic disciplines.* Denver, CO: Colorado Campus Compact.

This collection of essays on integrating service-learning in higher education includes two chapters that focus on service-learning in teacher education. *Service learning in teacher education at Seattle University* by Jeffrey B. Anderson and Kristin Guest discusses conceptual and theoretical foundations of service-learning and describes Community Internship, a mandatory two-quarter class in the Master in Teaching initial teacher certification program at Seattle University. *Service learning and the multicultural education of preservice teachers* by Paul Michalec explores the impact service-learning in diverse settings can have on preservice teachers.

Wade, R. C. (Ed.). (1997). *Community service-learning: A guide to including service in the public school curriculum.* New York, NY: State University of New York Press.

This collection of essays by practitioners in all aspects of education, including administrators, teachers, parents, and community members, discusses ideal and real service-learning efforts in P-12 schools. Wade's article, "Service-learning in Preservice Education," describes practical approaches that educators and administrators can use to implement service-learning in their classes and programs. Wade recognizes and addresses the need to begin gradually and build into a full program (contains 269 references).

PERIODICALS

Action in Teacher Education serves as a forum for the exchange of information and ideas related to the improvement of teacher education at all levels. Published by the Association of Teacher Educators.

Equity & Excellence in Education provides teachers, education faculty and students, and administrators with timely and professional coverage of current equity issues, especially those that have legal and economic ramifications. Published by the University of Massachusetts School of Education.

Journal on Excellence in College Teaching is designed to help faculty at universities and colleges increase student learning through effective teaching, interest in (and enthusiasm for) the profession of teaching, and communication among faculty about their classroom experiences. Published by Miami University, Ohio.

Journal of Public Service & Outreach is designed to create a network of practitioners to identify issues, evaluate research, share ideas, and collaborate to enhance their contribution to the publics and communities they serve. Published by the University of Georgia Office of the Vice President for Services.

Journal of Teacher Education features peer-reviewed conceptual and empirical articles, theme issues, and book reviews. Published in cooperation with AACTE.

Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning publishes scholarly articles specifically for a higher education service-learning audience. Published by the Office of Community Service Learning Press, the Center for Community Service and Learning, University of Michigan.

NSEE Quarterly features timely articles written by colleagues in the field of experiential education. Published by the National Society of Experiential Education.

Teacher Education Quarterly focuses on current topics in the preparation, study, and training of education professionals. Published by Caddo Gap Press for the California Council on the Education of Teachers.

Teaching and Teacher Education is devoted to the description and analysis of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of teaching, teacher effectiveness, teacher education, teacher thinking, and social policy affecting teaching. Published by Pergamon Press.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES

Anderson, J. B. (1998). *Service-learning and teacher education*. ERIC Digest. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education. (ED 421 481)

Service-learning is a philosophy of education and an instructional method. Anderson describes the benefits and rationale for integrating service-learning in a teacher education program, highlights examples of service-learning projects for preservice teachers, and overviews research from the field. Contains 14 references.

Cascade Educational Consultants. (1997). *Service learning in teacher education reference list*. Retrieved January 20, 2000, from the World Wide Web: <http://www.az.com/~pickeral/TeacherEdref.html>

This bibliography addresses teacher education and service-learning. Contains 42 references.

GUIDES

Communications for a Sustainable Future. (1999). *Service-learning syllabi in education*. Retrieved January 20, 2000, from the World Wide Web: <http://csf.Colorado.edu/sl/syllabi/education/education.html>

This collection of syllabi is from instructors who have integrated service-learning in their teacher education courses.

Hiott, B., & Lyday, W. J. (1999). *Service learning handbook for teacher educators and practitioners*. Columbia, SC: South Carolina Department of Education.

This handbook is designed to help teacher educators better understand, use, and embrace service-learning as a preservice teacher education strategy. Includes a list of resources.

Lyday, W. J., & Winecoff, H. L. (1997). Service-learning standards for teachers. Guidelines for practitioners and preservice teacher educator programs. *Community Education Journal*, 25(1/2), 43-44. (EJ 556 412)

The authors have compiled a set of service-learning standards for teachers using a Delphi process that included 40 service-learning coordinators, practitioners, and teacher educators. The standards are intended to help teacher educators develop preservice and in-service training and help practitioners in the field reflect on their own practices.

Nitschke-Shaw, D. (1998). *New England College preservice teacher service learning guidebook*. Henniker, NH: New England College.

This guide defines service-learning as a tool to promote democratic education. The 1995 Standards of Quality for School-Based Service-Learning (published by the Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform) are adapted to fit the needs of teacher educators. Worksheets and templates to develop a teacher education service-learning project are included. Contains 11 references.

Swick, K. J., & Winecoff, H. L. (1999). *Developing leadership in faculty and students: The power of service learning in teacher education*. Clemson, SC: National Dropout Prevention Center.

This article describes Service-Learning and Teacher Education (SLATE), a university-wide approach to educational reform that provides an opportunity for students, teachers, and community members to share the leadership and responsibility for learning. Contains 20 references.

Swick, K. J., Winecoff, H. L., Kemper, R., Rows, M., Freeman, N., Somerindyke, J., Mason, J., & Williams, T. (1998). *Service learning and teacher education*. Clemson, SC: National Dropout Prevention Center. (ED 430 139)

This booklet introduces service-learning in the context of teacher education. Connections are made between service-learning and other educational reforms and goals. Many examples illustrate the potential effect service-learning can have on teacher education students. Contains 18 references.

MEDIA

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. (1999). *Making connections: Service-learning, educational reform, and the preparation of new teachers*. [Cassette recording of a presentation for the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education].

Jeffrey B. Anderson, Elizabeth Hitch, Kenneth Howery, M. Stephen Lilly, Frank Newman, and Marilyn Smith address the need to offer service-learning in teacher education as content and in context of existing educational reform. Presenters also discuss resources available to help promote and implement service-learning programs.

Cascade Educational Consultants. (1998). *National Service Learning in Teacher Education Partnership*. Retrieved January 20, 2000, from the World Wide Web: <http://www.az.com/~pickeral/partnership.html>

This Web site features the National Service Learning in Teacher Education Partnership organization and electronic mailing list, both national forums for discussing critical issues in service-learning and teacher education.

Wade, R. C., & Flannagan, M. (1994). *Making a difference: Community service learning in teacher education*. [Video].

In this 6-minute video, Rahima Wade interviews Wendy Bradley, a teacher education student, about her experiences providing service in a child-care center for children at risk and working with school children on a service-learning project.

RESEARCH/PROGRAM REPORTS

Anderson, J. B., & Pickeral, T. (2000). Challenges and strategies for success with service-learning in preservice teacher education. *NSEE Quarterly*, (25)3, 7-22.

The authors surveyed 123 teacher educators, education deans, and state department of education service-learning coordinators on the challenges of implementing service-learning programs. Results indicate that the most critical obstacles relate to lack of time for teacher educators to plan and implement service-learning and lack of alignment of service-learning with faculty roles, rewards, and institutional priorities. The authors also interviewed a sample of the original subjects to discuss strategies for overcoming prevalent obstacles.

Boyle-Baise, M. S. (1998). Community service learning for multicultural teacher education: An exploratory study with preservice teachers. *Equity & Excellence in Teacher Education* 31(2), 52-60. (EJ 574 639)

This interpretative case study investigates the impact service-learning had on students who were placed in programs with diverse populations as part of a multicultural teacher education class. Service-learning promoted awareness, acceptance, and affirmation of cultural diversity. The experience did not necessarily dispel stereotypes, however, nor did it prompt students to question societal inequality. Contains 29 references.

Boyle-Baise, M. S., & Efiom, P. (1999, April). *The construction of meaning: Learning from service learning*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, PQ. (ED 429 923)

This study considers whether prior expectations have an impact on service-learning, what meanings preservice teachers make from service-learning, and whether reflection has an influence on meaning making. This interpretive case study used 24 preservice teachers in a multicultural education course. Preservice teachers learned that the process of confirmation or disconfirmation is not simple. They seemed to grow more comfortable with it over time. Contains 19 references.

Donahue, D. M. (1999). Service-learning for preservice teachers: Ethical dilemmas for practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15, 685-695. (EJ 594 173)

This case study features four preservice teachers who are writing service-learning curricula for a community-based organization as a service-learning project. The author details the dilemmas surrounding ethical decisions about what kind of service to perform and how much social activism to include. Such dilemmas offer preservice teachers an authentic opportunity to experience teaching as a moral and political endeavor. Contains 11 references.

Ehrlich, T. (1998). Reinventing John Dewey's "Pedagogy as a University Discipline." *The Elementary School Journal*, 98(5), 489-510. (EJ 569 105)

Ehrlich discusses Dewey's article "Pedagogy as a University Discipline" in light of today's education culture and its emphasis on assessment. Dewey and Ehrlich maintain that graduate students should learn about how to teach as well as how to research, particularly if they plan to teach after graduation. Specifically, students should learn the pedagogies of engagement (community service-learning, problem-based learning, and collaborative learning) if they plan to teach in higher education. Contains 32 references.

Freeman, C. C. (1997, March). *Service learning and teacher education: Mapping the territory*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Freeman surveyed teacher education programs in the northeastern United States. Results showed that 58% of the respondents had some service-learning component in their program. Programs included mediated field experiences and partnerships between the college and community-based programs. Contains 27 references.

Harwood, A., & Underhill, C. (2000). *Promising practice for K-16. Project Connect: School-university collaboration for service-learning*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.

This project involved a teacher education class from Western Washington University and an eighth-grade class from Fairhaven Middle School. Each class prepared for service-learning separately, then performed the service and reflected together. This paper describes the project, its rationale, the outcomes, challenges and benefits of collaboration, and suggestions for educators involved in similar projects. Contains 14 references and a list of resources and organizations.

Heide, T., Kozicki, K., & Pedras, M. J. (1999, April). *Mapping education for the new millennium: A UI perspective*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Northwest Association of Teacher Educators, Coeur d'Alene, ID. (ED 429 952)

This paper reports on how the College of Education at the University of Idaho embarked on the first year of a project to restructure its teacher education program and refocus it to reflect national standards and place P-12 students at the center of preservice learning. Service learning was integrated into course work as part of the new structure.

Hones, D. (1997). *Preparing teachers for diversity: A service learning approach*. East Lansing, MI: Michigan K-12 Service Learning Center. (ED 406 381)

Hones defines service-learning as a tool that addresses four avenues in multicultural education: assimilation, human relations, ethnic studies, and critical. The author describes the methods in his course and their impacts on three students. Contains 39 references and 2 charts on methods in multicultural education.

Learning in Deed. (2000). *Service-learning and preservice teacher education*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.

This issue paper describes the reasons service-learning is used in preservice teacher training, examines challenges to its use and strategies for success, and presents examples of successful programs. It also provides suggestions for administrators and policy makers on how to support service-learning and teacher education. Contains five references and a list of resources and organizations.

Levesque, J., & Prosser, T. (1996). Service learning connections. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 47(5), 325-334.

The authors describe a Student Literacy Corps (SLC) project where undergraduate students worked with a local homeless shelter to establish a literacy center for children and families. Students worked through moral dimensions of teaching, both with regard to involvement with diversity and working with professionals with differing points of view. Contains 45 references.

Mayhew, J. (2000, March). Service-learning in preservice special education: A comparison of two approaches. In *Capitalizing on leadership in rural special education: Making a difference for children and families*. Conference proceedings, Alexandria, VA. (ED 439 883)

This study compared the use of two approaches to service-learning in an undergraduate human exceptionalities course, one in which students designed and implemented their own service-learning project involving persons with disabilities, and one in which students chose from three prearranged projects. Results suggest that students benefited from both approaches, but each approach had advantages and disadvantages. Students in the unlimited choice group responded more positively in the content and citizenship domains than the limited choice group. Students in the limited choice group were able to make more specific connections between course concepts and the service experience.

Moon, A. (1994). Teaching excellence: The role of service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 1(1), 115-120. (EJ 552 422)

Three assertions are understood to effect change in the field of education: intelligence is multiple and dynamic; the learning context is both school and community based; and schools should be administered on a values model. Service-learning is offered as a vehicle to promote and implement these assertions. Contains 16 references.

Nitschke-Shaw, D. (1998). *Best practices: Service learning in teacher education in New Hampshire*. Bedford, NH: Campus Compact for New Hampshire.

This study investigated the integration of service-learning into eight teacher education courses in New Hampshire. From this study, the authors created guiding principles for service-learning in teacher education. Principles include the following: teachers should base projects on community need; community and administrative support is essential; service-learning should enhance, not add to, the classroom curriculum; assessment should reflect a connection to the curriculum and should be clearly defined; and to optimize the experience, preservice teachers should take ownership of their projects. Contains 17 references.

Reed, D. F., & Davis, M. D. (1999). Social reconstructionism for urban students. *Clearing House* 72(5), 291-294. (EJ 583 461)

This article discusses links between poverty and student performance and achievement; describes service-learning and social reconstructionism (the relationship between school curriculum and the political, social, and economic development of society); offers an example from an inner-city urban high school English class, describing social reconstructionism for urban students through a successful class project; and discusses implications for teacher education.

Root, S. (1994). Service learning in teacher education: A third rationale. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 1(1), 94-97. (EJ 552 418)

Service-learning challenges preservice teachers' assumptions about traditional modes of schooling and serves as a vehicle for education reform. Service-learning also introduces preservice teachers to the growing diversity of students and their needs, and prepares prospective teachers to participate and in a learner-centered educational system in ways that reflect Noddings's caring ethic. Contains 19 references.

Scales, P. C. (1999). Does service learning make a difference? *Source*, 15(1), 1-3.

A year-long study on the impact of service-learning on both social and academic success reports that teens tend to care less about others during adolescence. For students who participate in service-learning, however, this drop in concern is less than for those who do not participate.

Scales P. C., & Koppleman, D. J. (1997). Service learning in teacher preparation. In J. Schine (Ed.), *Service learning. Ninety-sixth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part I*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Several issues should be addressed to strengthen service-learning in teacher education: defining standard goals for service-learning; fitting service-learning with the philosophy of youth development and education; operational needs and barriers; and realizing the potential of service-learning. Through an investigation of these issues, the authors make practical recommendations for practitioners interested in implementing successful service-learning programs. Contains 39 references.

Shulha, L., & Piker J. (1995). Can program evaluation rescue service learning? In B. Howard (Ed.), *Experience and the curriculum*. Dubuque, IA: Horwood Association for Experimental Education, Kendall/Hunt Publishing Company. (ED 398 032)

Drawing on the rise and fall of a service-learning component of the teacher education program at Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, the authors recommend that advocates of service-learning validate their program by developing a context for their program that will complement the work of the entire teacher education department. Service-learning should be evaluated on that context as well as in relation to the impact on students. Contains 10 references.

Shumer, R. D. (1992). *Teacher education and service learning*. St. Paul, MN: Generator Center, College of Education, University of Minnesota.

The University of Minnesota looked at changing teacher preparation programs to include community-based and service-learning opportunities. Suggestions for such a program came from surveys and interviews with faculty from the university's College of Education and with community members who teach in a community service program or include students in their community programs. Results suggested two major options for change: (a) Tie a professional practice program to the College of Education that shares control with the community partners, and (b) integrate experiential and service-learning topics and activities in existing courses and programs offered through the College of Education. Contains 26 references.

Shumer, R. D. (1994). *A report from the field: Teachers talk about service-learning*. St. Paul, MN: Center for Experiential Education and Service Learning.

Teachers talk about the positive impacts of service-learning and the many problems associated with service-learning and educational change. Service-learning is not an easy process to implement, and, despite the successes, teachers are warned of many problems to be faced before the innovation takes hold.

Stachowski, L. L., & Mahan, J. M. (1998). Cross-cultural field placements: Student teachers learning from schools and communities. *Theory Into Practice*, 37(2), 155-162. (EJ 569 491)

Indiana University-Bloomington provides two opportunities for student teachers to perform cross-cultural service-learning projects. Some students work on Indian reservations, some in overseas programs. All students are expected to work in a traditional field placement; however, they are also required to perform service in the community, away from the schools. Students in both programs credited community members and children with having a strong impact on their own learning. Students learned more about the impact and affect of a community on a child than students in traditional placement settings. Contains 17 references.

Swick, K. J. (1999a). Service-learning in early childhood teacher education: Working with families. *Early Childhood Education Journal* 27(2), 129-137. (EJ 602 116)

Service-learning is a pedagogy that promotes an action research philosophy in early childhood teacher education. Components of meaningful service-learning programs include (a) clear interrelation with academic goals of the course; (b) students' participation in the assessment process; (c) students and faculty becoming part of the community to be served; and (d) regular evaluation of service-learning activities by all stakeholders.

Swick, K. J. (1999b). Service learning helps future teachers strengthen caring perspective. *The Clearing House*, 73(1), 29-33. (EJ 591 006)

This article promotes service-learning as a technique in teacher education that provides preservice teachers with the opportunity to learn from models in the field, develop caring skills, and appreciate the need to address all of their future students' needs. Contains 25 references.

Vadeboncouer, J., Rahm, J., Aguilera, D., & Le Compte, M. D. (1996). Building democratic character through community experiences in teacher education. *Education and Urban Society*, 28(2), 189-207. (EJ 522 432)

This study investigates a teacher education class on democracy with a service-learning component. Results indicate that placement in a diverse environment can impact the ability to fully appreciate diversity and that developing democratic values takes longer than a semester-long course. Contains 32 references.

Wade, R. C. (1995). Developing active citizens: Community service learning in social studies teacher education. *The Social Studies*, 86(3), 122-128. (EJ 510 829)

Service-learning affected the students of a social studies teacher education class. To maximize impact, Wade recommends three strategies: (a) Teacher educators should provide opportunities for students to develop a personal commitment by actively meeting others' needs; (b) students must be able to practice implementing service-learning projects in a real classroom; and (c) class time with preservice teachers should teach students how to develop service-learning lessons plans, reflect on their experiences, and discuss challenges of integrating service-learning projects. Contains 34 references.

Wade, R. C. (1997). Empowerment in student teaching through community service learning. *Theory Into Practice*, 36(3), 184-191. (EJ 554 738)

Service-learning provides students with an opportunity to experiment with approaches they have learned in school in a practical setting without the scrutiny of the cooperating teacher. It can provide an opportunity to practice reflection, develop autonomy, build expertise, and extend vision. Wade describes such growth as seen in programs through the University of Iowa. Contains 23 references.

Wade, R. C., & Anderson, J. B. (1996). Community service learning: A strategy for preparing human service oriented teachers. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 23(4), 59-74. (EJ 536 895)

Service-learning can facilitate learning that is essential to human service-oriented teachers. Service-learning in teacher education can introduce new attitudes and approaches to teaching, increase knowledge of human services, and develop collaboration and referral skills. The authors describe service-learning programs in four teacher education programs. Contains 37 references.

Wade, R. C., & Anderson, J. B. (1998, March). *Beginning teachers' experiences with service learning*. Paper presented at the Ninth Annual National Service-Learning Conference, Minneapolis, MN.

This study investigates the use of service-learning as a teaching tool with teachers who have been in the field for fewer than 5 years. Teachers participating in the study had attended teacher education programs with a service-learning component. Thirty percent of the teachers had integrated service-learning in their classrooms, 78% rated their experience as a student service-learning participant as very positive, and 83% felt they would integrate service-learning in the future. Factors contributing positively to the implementation of service-learning included flexible scheduling, transportation, peer support, administrative support, release time for planning, easy phone access, parent assistance, and community agency assistance. Barriers to service-learning integration included lack of time for service during the school day, lack of time to plan a project, and overly busy schedules. Contains 24 references.

Wade, R. C., & Anderson, J. B. (1999). Novice teachers' experiences of community service-learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15, 667-684. (EJ 594 172)

This study reflects the survey responses of more than 300 early career teachers. Results indicate that while many teachers use only the techniques they experienced as P-12 students, 30% had implemented service-learning strategies they learned in their teacher education programs. Contains 27 references.

ORGANIZATIONS

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE)
1307 New York Avenue, NW
Suite 300
Washington, DC 20005-4701
Tel: 202-293-2450; Fax: 202-457-8095
<http://www.aacte.org/>

Supports programs in teacher education, multicultural and international education, leadership development, networking, professional and women's issues, and school reform. Houses the Service-Learning and Teacher Education Project, designed to help develop institutional capacity and interinstitutional infrastructure to incorporate service-learning in teacher education programs.

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC)

One Dupont Circle, NW

Suite 410

Washington, DC 20036

Tel: 202-728-0200; Fax: 202-833-2467

<http://www.aacc.nche.edu/about/about.htm>

Acts as a national voice for two-year associate degree-granting institutions. Publishes a Web site dedicated to service-learning (<http://www.aacc.nche.edu/initiatives/SERVICE/SERVICE.HTM>).

Association of Teacher Educators (ATE)

1900 Association Drive

Suite ATE

Reston, VA 20191-1502

Tel: 703-620-3110; Fax: 703-620-9530

E-mail: ATE1@aol.com

<http://www.siu.edu/departments/coe/ate/>

Devoted to improving teacher education for both school and campus-based teacher educators.

Corporation for National Service

1201 New York Avenue, NW

Washington, DC 20525

Tel: 202-606-5000

E-mail: webmaster@cns.gov

<http://www.cns.gov/>

Promotes and supports service-learning through resources and funding, such as Learn and Serve America grants.

ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education

1307 New York Avenue, NW

Suite 300

Washington, DC 20005-4701

Tel: 800-822-9229

<http://www.ericsp.org/>

Provides information on teacher recruitment, selection, certification, training, preservice and in-service preparation, retention, and aspects of health, physical education, recreation, and dance.

Learn and Serve America National Exchange Center
National Youth Leadership Council
1910 West County Road B
St. Paul, MN 55113
Tel: 877-572-3924; Fax: 651-631-3672
<http://www.lsaexchange.org/>

Supports service-learning programs in schools, colleges and universities, and community organizations across the country through peer-based training and technical assistance.

National Association of Industrial and Technical Teacher Educators
(NAITTE) <http://www.orst.edu/dept/naitte/>

Facilitates cooperation among educators engaged in the preparation of teachers in industrial arts, trade and industrial education, and technical education.

National Center for Research on Teacher Learning
c/o Robert E. Floden
116M Erickson Hall
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824-1034
Tel: 517-355-9302; Fax: 517-432-2795
E-mail: floden@msu.edu
<http://ncrtl.msu.edu/>

Conducts research on approaches to and quality of teacher education, as well as on the challenges of learning to teach.

National Service-Learning Clearinghouse
954 Buford Avenue R-460
St. Paul, MN 55108
Tel: 800-808-7378; Fax: 612-625-6277
E-mail: serve@tc.umn.edu
<http://umn.edu/~serve>

Maintains databases of programs, organizations, people, events, and literature to promote and support service-learning.

Partnership for Service-Learning
815 Second Avenue
Suite 3155
New York, NY 10017
Tel: 212-986-0989; Fax: 212-986-5039
E-mail: pslmy@aol.com
<http://www.studyabroad.com/psl/>

Designs and implements international and intercultural service-learning projects.

STAR Schools
c/o Civic Literacy Project
Indiana University-Bloomington
210 Woodburn Hall
Bloomington, IN 47405
Tel: 812-856-4677
E-mail: clpadmin@indiana.edu
<http://serve.indiana.edu/aboutCLP/STAR.htm>

The Civic Literacy Project provides Service-learning and Teaching Aligned to Reform (STAR) schools with a specific structure for reform, intensive technical assistance, professional development, and workshops.

AFTERWORD

BIRTH OF A DREAM: A CALIFORNIA PERSPECTIVE ON THE INTEGRATION OF SERVICE-LEARNING IN AMERICAN TEACHER EDUCATION, 2000-2010

■ DON HILL

PROLOGUE

I remember well when my research interest in service-learning began. A high school student named José was speaking in the afternoon at a workshop for P-12 teachers at Stanford University in late June 1993. He spoke for 5 minutes describing his service-learning experience in an English as a Second Language class where he developed his English and Spanish skills by tutoring a troubled middle school student every week. His eyes sparkled as he described to 40 teachers how he taught language and mentored his young friend, who was on the verge of joining a gang when their relationship began. When José finished, a teacher in the audience stood up and confronted him with irritated emotion. "José, you never did anything in my class. You hardly ever even came to class. How can you explain this sudden interest in your education?" After a long, tense pause, José raised his head and gently said, "This class was the first time in school that I was asked to do something that felt important."

I realized then that service-learning could be magical. José demonstrated that powerful learning results when relationships are nourished and the learning process respects student interests. Memories of José returned often as I researched how and why service-learning moved from the edge of the teacher education stage in 2000 to a center place on that stage by fall 2010.

This paper blends historical fact with future prediction. Descriptions of events and research through January 2000 are real and accurate. The quote from Larry Cuban is real, but it was written in January 2000.

I want to thank the following people, who contributed to the development and writing of this paper: Jill Addison-Jacobson, Mary Sue Ammon, Jeffrey Anderson, Mark Batenburg, Mike Brugh, Jacques Caesar, Larry Cuban, Lana Daly, Barbara Granicher, Bobbi Hansen, Silva Karayan, Janet McDaniel, Joy Pelton, Denise Clark Pope, and Susan Verducci. And I want to especially thank Barbara Granicher for helping me work through the ideas and organization at a time when the vision was confused.

The interpretation in this historical essay is based on the analysis of 75 interviews of policy makers and education professors from state and private universities conducted from November 2010 through August 2011.

BACKGROUND

California Superintendent of Public Instruction Delaine Eastin's California Task Force report, *Service-Learning: Linking Classrooms and Communities*, in December 1998 recommended that all teacher education institutions integrate service-learning in their programs. Further, it advocated that they train all teachers seeking certification on how to effectively use this teaching strategy. By September 1999, the report sat ignored on book shelves, and service-learning was absent from most conversations of education professors, their professional organizations, and key reform efforts. As the new century began, observers of P-12 schools and teacher education predicted that service-learning was destined to be a tiny, promising comet flashing across the educational skies for 2 or 3 more years before disappearing.

But they were wrong!

The theme of the fall meeting of the California Council on the Education of Teachers (CCET) in 2010 was Understanding the Impact of Service-Learning on California School Reform. Featured research papers traced the dramatic growth of service-learning in P-12 schools and teacher education institutions during the decade. The keynote address was titled The Reform Magic of Service-Learning in California Schools.

Many events and forces combined to move the 1998 Eastin recommendations on service-learning in teacher education off ignored shelves and into the mainstream of California educational reform. Evidence suggests that an early spark igniting this movement of change occurred at the October 1999 CCET Conference in San Diego.

Official conference programs and informal discussions in San Diego focused almost exclusively on standards: content standards, performance standards, standards for the California teaching profession, and huge worries about high stake standardized tests, which then were not connected to the content standards. But concerned murmurs of dissent also surfaced. In response to the first major conference presentation on standards, a small discussion group wrote on its butcher paper, "Where is caring? Where is justice?"

These simply posed questions jarred three key leaders crafting standards reform policy and legislation to give more attention to affective learning

dimensions. Although this reflective moment may have stimulated new thinking, including the relevance of service-learning, many key people interviewed emphasized a dramatic conceptual revolution that began after the 1999 conference and gathered decisive momentum by 2002. During this time period, service-learning stopped being seen as a program weakly competing with other add-on programs for policy attention and scarce resources and began to be viewed as a way to address important educational issues, including the achievement of higher educational standards. More study is required to fully understand how and why this change happened, but there is much to report.

ANALYSIS: STANDARDS AND ACHIEVEMENT

We begin this analysis by looking more closely at the teacher education world in 1999. It is easy to understand why few people then imagined the emergence of service-learning as a central feature of preservice teacher education. Professors had enormous issues dominating their lives. Everyone was wrestling with pressures created by the standards revolution, which placed high stakes demands on both P-12 schools and teacher training institutions. Certification of teachers and accreditation of P-12 schools and schools of education were becoming dependent on new and experienced teachers' meeting demanding performance standards. Accountability ruled the day.

The overriding challenge driving decision making was to train teachers to cope with incredibly diverse classrooms and enable them to help all students, regardless of language or socioeconomic background, to read, write, and compute at high performance standards. Energy and resources were focused on training teachers to meet that ambitious goal. Professors with other professional priorities, whether it be technology, special education, science, social studies, or the arts, struggled to protect their specialty in this standards-driven environment. Reform ideas that called for new skills, challenged dominant teaching pedagogy, or appeared to require extra work arrived at most campuses already on life support.

STANDARDS STRUGGLING

Although educators and policy makers were fixated on using standards to improve academic achievement and reduce school inequities, goals valued by most everyone, competing observations and concerns were also surfacing. Many political observers and educators were deeply alarmed about students' disengagement with school and community life. (Although

youth were volunteering in record numbers, this volunteering did not extend to civic participation.) Recognizing that the health of a democratic society depends on responsible civic participation, they were appalled to see students in growing numbers viewing the political system with cynical indifference. Youth, as a group, appeared to feel powerless to change life in the school or the general society. Resiliency, the feeling of can do, was declining. Intense feelings of impotence and disconnection with the adult world were identified at this time as the single most important predictors of poor physical health in adolescent youth.

According to the majority of people I interviewed, teacher educators in 2001 began to wrestle more directly with the recognition that students' disengagement from school and the community was a key cause for poor learning. Learning does not occur when students think and feel that school is unrelated to their lives. Because of the school/community disconnect, many students "do school" with their mental computers turned off or on "sleep." Potential student talent and motivation lay camouflaged by indifferent, bored eyes. For standards-based reform to succeed, students' mental computers needed to be on with all systems ready to go. "Doing school" needed to become closer to "doing life." As teacher educators started to ask seriously how they could teach preservice teachers to more effectively connect school and community and link youth and adults in meaningful ways, they injected the embryo of service-learning integration into teacher education. Service-learning was a pedagogy made to order to meet this challenge!

SERVICE-LEARNING POTENTIAL

By shedding its old identity as a competing add-on, service-learning became almost overnight a contributing solution to several key issues. The four areas most frequently mentioned in interviews were the strengthening of standards-based education, the creation of community-connected schools, the development of young people who care about their communities and want to contribute to their vitality, and the recruitment and retention of teachers. Many educators came to recognize that there was no other instructional strategy that could match the power of service-learning to address these areas. This recognition was accelerated by research published in 2001 and 2002 that confirmed the impact of service-learning on these concerns in a variety of school districts across the nation.

Service-learning made two significant and quite different contributions to standards-based reform. Educators and the public learned quickly that setting high standards for all students and enabling all students to reach high standards were two very different stories. Classroom teachers needed to find new strategies to motivate students with vastly differing language skills, cultural heritages, special education needs, and learning styles to master abstract concepts and perform demanding tasks. Service-learning became a strong contributor to standards-based reform, because teachers discovered that it was an effective strategy to help students meet these higher expectations. Skeptics became believers when they learned how teachers were using service-learning to achieve dramatic classroom results. For example, few would predict that spending time building a structure for Habitat for Humanity would impact learning geometry. But few could question the strategy after students from a remedial geometry class that spent most of the second semester on the building project generated test scores in the top 80% district wide and the highest rate of sign-ups for advanced math the following year.

Service-learning also contributed to standards-based reform by providing a balance in curriculum that many educators felt was desperately needed. Test scores reflect only one dimension of student learning and school experience. High quality service-learning projects provided academic learning but also nourished the whole child. Several professors interviewed reported that they channeled their discomfort with what they called "standards-based madness" into developing service-learning instruction aimed equally at academic achievement, civic responsibility, and personal growth.

Teacher educators began to increase their concern with the lack of school-community connections after the horror of a series of school shootings where students, often with good test scores and from good homes, attempted to murder their fellow students. Service-learning emerged as a promising response to these tragedies because it offered multiple bridges for connecting students and teachers to issues of importance in the community. California media in 2000 began featuring stories illustrating that when parents and community members see their youth engaged in learning and applying their knowledge and skills to improve the lives of others, school-community barriers begin to dissolve. Moreover, because service-learning was built on principles of mutual

respect, it created webs of school-community and youth-adult collaboration that stimulated increased contact and good will. Research evidence by 2003 established that schools with strong service-learning programs tended to become more caring communities, which reduced an array of common problems, including poor student attendance, student conflict, low parent involvement, vandalism, and student indifference. Youth in service-learning schools were healthier because they felt more connected to their communities and schools.

As this decade developed, the shortage of qualified P-12 teachers and administrators began to push standards-based reform off the front pages. Governor Gray Davis in his State of the State address in 2000 led the way by describing the enormity of the future challenge. This crisis was compounded by the reality that close to 50% of new teachers, especially the most highly qualified, were dropping out of the profession within five years. The most important education question in California became "How do you attract and retain talented people in teaching?" Service-learning started to offer a small answer to this challenge, because research established that teachers who used service-learning felt more satisfied with their work and stayed in teaching for significantly longer times. Service-learning teaching inspired collegial collaboration and professional pride. Further, teacher education programs discovered that service-learning had recruitment value because it tapped into the personal passion and motivation of young people and attracted young people from diverse communities who become skilled community-connected teachers.

SERVICE-LEARNING SUPPORTED

The service-learning comet stayed in orbit because it effectively impacted the four areas that dominated the teacher education world from 2000 to 2010. But the comet would not have flamed brightly, the dream would not have triumphed, without important structural contributions made by policy makers and new political coalitions.

Both policy makers and professors of education emphasized the importance of service-learning penetration in the language of key documents. When California schools and districts, influenced by the work in other states, began to incorporate service-learning in performance standards and student assessment strategies in 2001-2002, P-12 administrators and teacher education professors began to see service-learning in a new light and view it more seriously. Several interviews commented on how teacher edu-

cation institutions during this time gradually came to recognize that service-learning was a natural fit with the vision of the California Standards for the Teaching Profession. California Campus Compact facilitated this recognition by disseminating examples of service-learning instruction being used to demonstrate meeting the standards, with early examples focusing on two standards: planning instruction and designing learning experiences for all students; and assessing student learning. Because service-learning effectively draws on and values students' backgrounds, interests, and developmental learning needs, it definitely helps teachers plan and design learning experiences for all students. Service-learning supports assessment by providing authentic examples of students' progress to students, families, and the community that often are more meaningful than test scores and report cards.

Professor Larry Cuban, who retired from Stanford just as service-learning started to flourish in 2002, argued that research was a much less significant factor in convincing people of the merit of service-learning in teacher education than most others thought. He stressed that the key force for change was the formation of political coalitions of educators, business groups, and legislators that supported the critical need for schools to develop responsible citizens as well as prepare students for work. In his words, "Service-learning came alive as these broad based groups tried to identify strategies to support the much neglected civic purposes of schools and discovered that service-learning is precisely the way that schools can build citizenship and communities at the same time."

FINAL THOUGHTS

The hope of integrating service-learning in California teacher education moved from an idealistic dream in 1999 to a remarkable reality by 2010. We have seen how a number of factors shaped this change. José would probably cut to the quick and say service-learning ended up on center stage in P-12 schools and teacher education because it helped young people achieve academically and connect to the real world in their communities. If I could ignore the interview data and trust my instincts, I would say the dream became a reality because service-learning attracted a lot of people of passion and talent to classroom teaching who inspired young people to believe in themselves and to use their learning to help others.

APPENDIX A

STANDARDS OF QUALITY FOR SCHOOL-BASED AND COMMUNITY- BASED SERVICE-LEARNING

Source: Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform, March 1995.

1. Effective service-learning efforts strengthen service and academic learning.
2. Model service-learning provides concrete opportunities for youth to learn new skills, to think critically, and to test new roles in an environment that encourages risk taking and rewards competence.
3. Preparation and reflection are essential elements in service-learning.
4. Youths' efforts are recognized by those served, including their peers, the school, and the community.
5. Youth are involved in the planning.
6. The service students perform makes a meaningful contribution to the community.
7. Effective service-learning integrates systematic formative and summative evaluation.
8. Service-learning connects the school or sponsoring organization and its community in new and positive ways.
9. Service-learning is understood and supported as an integral element in the life of a school or sponsoring organization and its community.
10. Skilled adult guidance and supervision are essential to the success of service-learning.
11. Preservice training, orientation, and staff development that include the philosophy and methodology of service-learning best ensure that program quality and continuity are maintained.

APPENDIX B

TOOLS FOR TEACHING THE PEDAGOGY OF SERVICE-LEARNING

REFLECTION QUESTIONS FOR INITIAL SERVICE ACTIVITIES

Level 1: Reflective Observation (personal reflection about events)

- What are your thoughts and feelings about situations or incidents?
- What are your perceptions of others' thoughts and feelings about events?
- What are your perceptions of how this event has affected individuals in the service setting and why?

Level 2: Abstract Conceptualization (relationship between events observed and experienced and prior knowledge)

- What prior knowledge did you use to help explain and understand the situation itself or the dynamics presented in the situation?
- Where might your assumptions at the time or afterward have been shortsighted or faulty?

Level 3: Active Experimentation (the relationship between this learning and other situations you might encounter in the future)

- What might this experience apply to in the future?
- Next time, what would you try in a similar situation?
- What advice would you give to others who might be in a similar situation?
- How can this experience relate to becoming a teacher? What does it tell you about teaching and learning?

Adapted from Arnold (1995).

ELEMENTS OF HIGH QUALITY SERVICE-LEARNING AND QUADRANT ACTIVITY CASE STUDIES

Quadrant Exercise

Read each case and decide where it belongs on the Service Learning Quadrant.

A. The Oxnard school district votes to require that all students contribute 10 hours of voluntary service to their high school every year to deal directly with increasing problems of campus vandalism, which have almost brought classroom instruction to a halt. A clerk in the counseling office is assigned to record participation hours so that handling the service requirement does not become an extra burden for classroom teachers.

B. Mrs. Templeton organizes her middle school music program to help a neighboring elementary school restore music in its curriculum. Students in her classes go to the elementary school and tutor individual students in how to play instruments. The tutoring program culminates with a joint concert at the end of the year.

C. The teachers at Joaquin Miller Middle School decide that all their students should be doing community service. In order to avoid a logistical nightmare, they contract with their local Volunteer Center to place 300 of their students in nonprofit agencies and to track the number of hours students are working. The students are placed in a wide variety of jobs.

D. The freshman English teachers at Mandalay High School organize their curriculum around the theme of community. In addition to reading literature that focuses on community issues, all students are asked to volunteer during the school year to contribute to either their school or local community. An adult volunteer is the service coordinator; she helps place students in a wide variety of projects that range from working on a farm to volunteering in a blood bank.

E. Mr. Snickers uses homelessness as a central theme for a 9-week unit in his English class. In addition to reading a novel about homeless youth, and several poems providing a variety of perspectives on the homeless, his students write and act out a series of skits in class on different problems faced by the homeless.

F. Mrs. Cardoza spends 2 weeks in her fifth-grade class studying how many different cultures have celebrations similar to Thanksgiving in America. Students bring in cans of food at the end of the unit, which she delivers to Second Harvest Food Bank to help give a little bit of Thanksgiving to people in need.

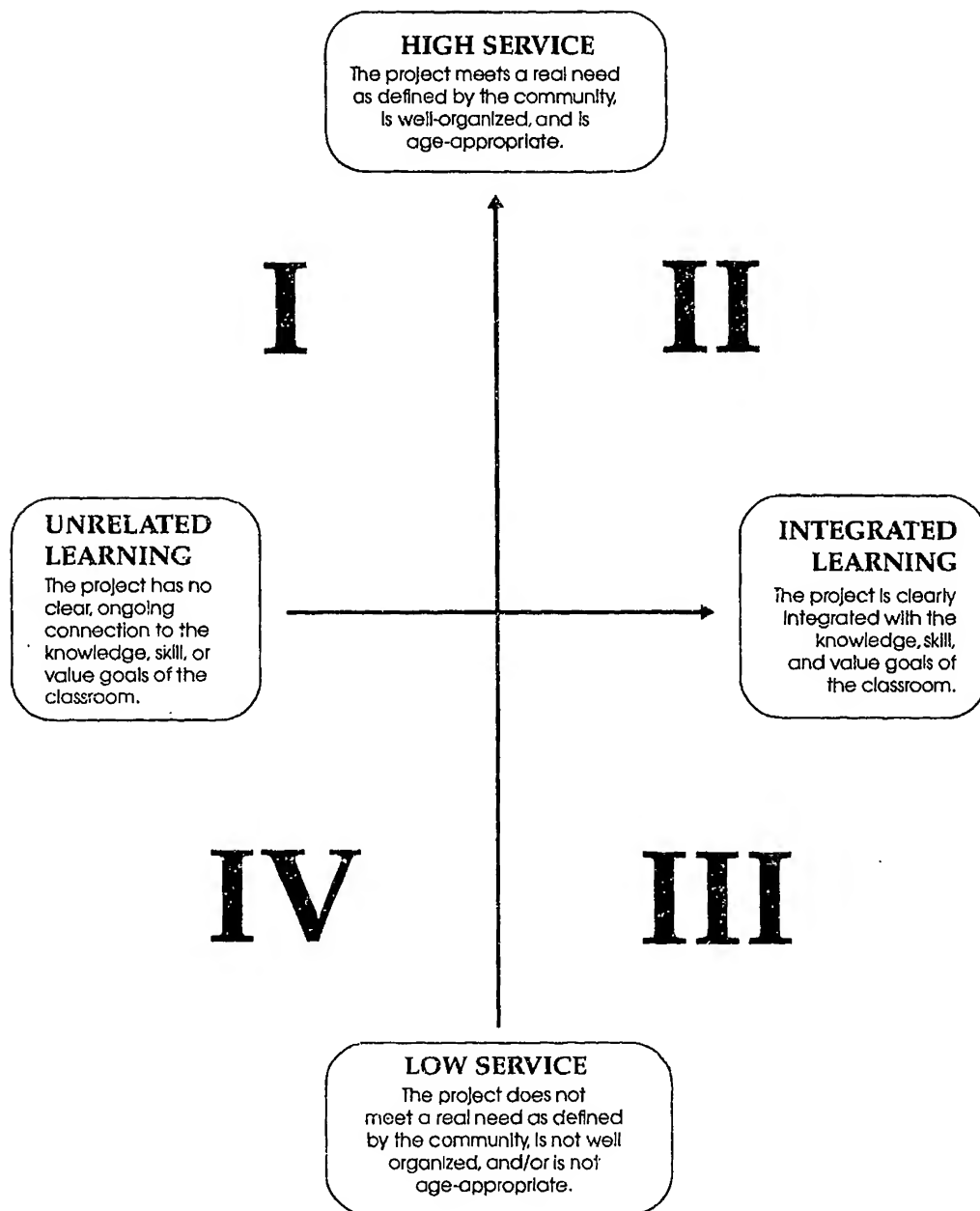
G. Ms. Ramirez organizes her general science class to increase earthquake preparedness in her students' neighborhoods. She begins this project by having speakers from the U.S. Geological Survey and going on field trips organized by graduate students in geology at UC Berkeley. The project culminates when students create earthquake preparedness pamphlets in English and Spanish and go in teams of two to distribute the pamphlets to their neighbors.

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TOOLS FOR SERVICE-LEARNING PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

COMMUNITY ASSESSMENT PLANNER

To help you with the first step in developing your service-learning project, you will need to carry out some activities. These questions are designed to provide a record of your work and help you to focus on some factors that are important in developing a meaningful project.

1. The community being served by the project is _____.
2. Describe the assessment process you carried out.
3. How were students involved in the process?
4. What were the assets of the community that were discovered?
5. What were the needs of the community that emerged?
6. List possible projects that were discussed.
7. What project did you choose?
8. Provide a rationale for the chosen project.

Jane Callahan, Providence College.

TOOLS FOR SERVICE-LEARNING PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

CONNECTING TO THE LITERACY STANDARDS PLANNER

BOOKS	LITERACY STANDARDS	LITERACY TASKS	CURRICULUM CONNECTIONS	SERVICE-LEARNING PROJECT ACTIVITIES

EXAMPLE OF COMPLETED

"CONNECTING TO THE LITERACY STANDARDS PLANNER"

BOOKS	LITERACY STANDARDS	LITERACY TASKS	CURRICULUM CONNECTIONS	SERVICE-LEARNING PROJECT ACTIVITIES
Miss Rumphius by Barbara Cooney	2. Students read a wide range of literature from many periods in many genres to build an understanding of the many dimensions of human experience. 7. Students conduct research on issues and interests by generating ideas and questions, and by posing problems. They gather, evaluate, and synthesize data from a variety of sources to communicate their discoveries in ways that suit their purpose and audience.	Following written directions Understanding figurative language Critical thinking Character study: Time line of Miss Rumphius's development	Science Social Studies Art	Grow plants for transplanting to school garden Grow plants for senior citizens at nursing homes Individual notes to senior citizens to accompany plants Trip to nursing home to deliver plants

Jeri Gillin, Providence College.

350

TOOLS FOR SERVICE-LEARNING PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

SERVICE-LEARNING UNIT DESIGN PLANNER

PROJECT IDEA

CONTENT STANDARDS & PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

PRODUCTS & ASSESSMENT TASKS

Adapted from KIDS Consortium "Planning Backwards" worksheet, Lewiston, Maine.

ACADEMIC AND SOCIAL SKILLS EVALUATION CHECKLIST

On a scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree), rate the student's progress during the service-learning project.

Student has learned new skills.	1	2	3	4	5
Student has learned to work cooperatively with others.	1	2	3	4	5
Student has learned to work independently.	1	2	3	4	5
Student has increased self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5
Student enjoys learning.	1	2	3	4	5
Student initiates activities.	1	2	3	4	5
Student is concerned about quality of the work product.	1	2	3	4	5
Student communicates effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
Student has learned to use time effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
Student has gained confidence in his/her abilities.	1	2	3	4	5
Student shows a concern for others.	1	2	3	4	5
Student is motivated.	1	2	3	4	5
Student views self positively.	1	2	3	4	5
Student has gained an appreciation for learning.	1	2	3	4	5

Terri Davis, California State University-Chico.

APPENDIXES

SECONDARY SELF-EVALUATION

On a scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree), rate your own learning and feelings about the service-learning project.

I have learned new skills.	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy working with others.	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy working alone.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel good about my work on the project.	1	2	3	4	5
The project was fun to work on.	1	2	3	4	5
I care if the project is done correctly.	1	2	3	4	5
I like starting projects like this one.	1	2	3	4	5
I have learned a lot from this project.	1	2	3	4	5
I think the project turned out well.	1	2	3	4	5
I want to do another project like this one.	1	2	3	4	5

Terri Davis, California State University-Chico.

QUESTIONS TO STIMULATE SELF-REFLECTION IN PRESERVICE TEACHERS

- How did your planning process affect the impact of the project on the community and the students?
- In what ways was the service clearly integrated with the academic goals of the project? How could that integration have been improved?
- Rate your project with a 1 (effective), 2 (satisfactory), or 3 (needed improvement) for how well it addressed each component of the seven elements of high quality service-learning. (If only one or two of the elements were emphasized because of a limited time for the project, restrict this self-assessment to only those elements.)
- What questions or issues were raised about the link to the community during implementation of the project? What were some of the surprise concerns or new understandings?
- Were the students well prepared for the activities involved with the project? What preparations would you include in subsequent projects?
- What did you learn about your teaching style and strengths during this experience?
- Were you disappointed in any aspect of the results of the project?
- In what ways did you use resources inside or outside the school site to help you with any aspects of the project?
- In what ways was the process meaningful to you as an educator?
- What have you learned about the potential of service-learning to impact the learning process?

Terri Davis, California State University-Chico.

JOURNAL EVALUATION

The following categories reflect feelings and statements made in journal entries regarding students' experiences with service-learning. Please include any other categories that you noted in your students' journal. Circle all that apply: 1 (not noted), 2 (noted in 1-3 entries), 3 (noted in more than 3 entries)

Empathy	1	2	3
Respect for self	1	2	3
Respect for others	1	2	3
Respect for property	1	2	3
Respect for others' feelings	1	2	3
Pride in self-accomplishments	1	2	3
Pride in group's accomplishments	1	2	3
Willingness to attempt unfamiliar tasks	1	2	3
Willingness to work cooperatively with others	1	2	3
Building trust with others	1	2	3
Experiencing success in project completion	1	2	3
Effectively dealing with interpersonal experiences	1	2	3
Effectively building rapport with others	1	2	3
Positive feelings about working as a team	1	2	3
Ability to use effective communication skills	1	2	3
Increasing knowledge of practical skills	1	2	3
Knowledge of leadership skills	1	2	3
Sense of accomplishment in self	1	2	3
Sense of accomplishment in the group	1	2	3
Increase in self-confidence	1	2	3
Increase in self-worth	1	2	3
Improved self-esteem	1	2	3
Building friendships	1	2	3
Other	1	2	3

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APPENDIX C

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“Service-learning works. It helps young people see themselves as resources and leaders, and become active-duty citizens. The challenge now is to make sustained and serious service in the community the common expectation of all students, in every school in the land.”

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“Service-learning is a topic that all teachers, current and future, must learn about to better serve the needs of students, their families, and the communities in which we all live.”

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